DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 408 237 SP 037 068

TITLE	Balancing Academic Achievement and Social Growth. Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association (4th, San Jose, California, September 21, 1996).
INSTITUTION	Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association, Rockville, MD.
PUB DATE	21 Sep 96
NOTE	141p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Academic Achievement; Cantonese; *Chinese Americans; *Chinese Culture; Cultural Differences; Elementary School Students; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; Mandarin Chinese; Native Language Instruction; *Parent Participation; Preservice Teacher Education; *Second Language Instruction; Secondary School Students; *Social Development; Student Characteristics
IDENTIFIERS	China; Taiwan

ABSTRACT

This proceedings is presented in three parts. Part 1 contains summaries of the keynote speech and one paper: "Sa-Jiao: An Important Concept in Understanding Chinese Students' Social Behavior" (Jing-Jyi Wu); and "Our Choices Create Our Future: A Chinese-American Perspective" (Rose Tseng). Part 2 contains summaries of three panel sessions. The first panel session, "Cultural Identity and Social Growth of Chinese and American Students," contains presentations by Michael Chang, Yuhaw Eva Lee, and Phylis Lan Lin. The second panel session, "Chinese Language Teaching and Learning: A Cantonese and Mandarin Perspective," includes five presentations by Chen-Ching Li, K.C. Leung, Chaofen Sun, Shirley H.L. Lee, and Liana Sieto. The third panel session, "Parental Involvement in School Learning," has four presentations by Li-Rong L. Cheng, Ben Liao, Jane Chiu, and Sin-Yee Poon (in Chinese). Part 3 summarizes the poster sessions: "Chinese Language Education Issues" (Guang Yang, Liping Ma, and Terrence M. Doyle); "Instructionally Related Issues" (Xianglei Chen, Marilyn M. Y. Chi, and Mei-Yan Lu); "Learner Characteristics Issues" (Liang-Tsu Hsieh, Shwu-Yong Huang, and Shu-Ling Wang); and "Education Reform Issues" (Lu Chang and Wei-Non Shu). A list of conference participants and contributors, and advertisements (in Chinese) are appended. (SPM)

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ED 408 237

September 21, 1996 *San Jose, California*

The Fourth Annual Conference Proceedings
第四屆年會論文集

Balancing Academic Achievement & Social Growth

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1996
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北美華人教育研究及策劃協會1996年會論文集

Acknowledgment

The Chinese American Educational Research Development Association has successfully entered its fifth year of existence. Starting with our second year, we have hosted national conferences in Washington, D.C.(1993), New York(1994), and Chicago.(1995). This year, the fourth annual conference is held in San Jose, California. We would like to thank each of the speakers, panelists, and presenters who contributed their abstracts and papers for this conference. A special thank-you is also extended to all of the chairs and discussants who facilitate the discussions for the poster presentations. We have organized the papers and abstracts in the sequence of the Conference Program: Keynote Speech, Panel Discussions, and Poster Presentations.

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Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association
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PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association

Welcome to the 4th annual national conference sponsored by the Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association held at the Hyatt St. Claire, San Jose, California, on September 21, 1996.

As you may know, the conference theme for this year is "Balancing Between Academic Achievement and Social Growth." The conference program addresses many themes, issues, and research. The conference program includes keynote presentations, panel discussions, and concurrent poster sessions. This conference will offer the opportunity for participants to acquire new knowledge, share successful experiences, and interact with colleagues from the United States as well as from abroad. I trust you will benefit from active involvement in this conference and make this CAERDA conference one of the best professional experiences in your career.

I urge you to join me in thanking the Conference Committee under Dr. Ji-Mei Chang's leadership for the dedication and hard work in order to make this a successful conference. Also, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to our honorable guests, keynote speakers, presenters, moderators, and local planning committee members for your participation in and support of the 4th CAERDA annual conference.

My best wishes for your professional endeavors.

Allen M. Huang,
President
CAERDA

北美華人教育研究及策劃協會
Chinese American Educational Research and Development Association

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CAERDA 4th Annual Conference Program

September 21, 1996 San Jose, California

Program Overview

8:00 a.m. - 12:00 p.m.	Registration
8:00 a.m. - 9:00 a.m.	Coffee & Tea
9:00 a.m. - 9:30 a.m.	Opening Ceremony
9:30 a.m. - 10:00 a.m.	Welcoming & Greetings
10:00 a.m.- 10:30 a.m.	Keynote Speech
10:30 a.m.- 10:45 a.m.	Break
10:45 a.m. - 12:00 a.m.	Panel Session: Panel 1
12:00 p.m. - 1:30 p.m.	Luncheon & Speech
1:30 p.m. - 2:30 p.m.	Concurrent Poster Sessions
2:30 p.m. - 2:45 p.m.	Break
2:45 p.m. - 4:00 p.m.	Panel Session : Panel 2
4:00 p.m. - 4:15 p.m.	Break
4:15 p.m. - 5:30 p.m.	Panel Session: Panel 3
5:30 p.m. - 6:30 p.m.	Membership General Meeting

9:00 - 9:30 a.m. 開幕典禮 Opening Ceremony

Introduction of CAERDA & conference Chair	Ms. Diana Li 鄺如丘 女士	Operations Director, Cross-Cultural and Community Services Center, San Jose, CA
Introduction of President, CAERDA	Dr. Ji-Mei Chang 張稚美 博士	Chairperson, CAERDA '96 Conference Division of Special Education & Rehabilitative Services, San Jose State University
Introduction of Board of Directors	Dr. Allen M. Huang 黃茂樹 博士	President, CAERDA, Division of Special Education University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, Colorado

9:30 - 10:00 a.m. 來賓致詞 **Welcoming and Greetings**

Introduction of President Caret	Dr. Peter Lee 李欽湧 博士	Associate Vice President, Faculty Affairs, San Jose State University
	Dr. Robert Caret	President, San Jose State University
Introduction of Director General Lo	Dr. Ji-Mei Chang 張稚美 博士	Chairperson, CAERDA '96 Conference
	Hon. Jyh-Yuan Lo 羅處長致遠先生	Director General, Taipei Economic and Cultural Office in San Francisco, Republic of China.

10:00 - 10:30 a.m. 專題演講 **Keynote Speech**

Introduction of Keynote Speaker	Dr. Lung-Ching Chiao 喬龍慶 博士	Center for International Education United States Department of Education
Keynote	Dr. Jing-Jyi Wu 吳靜吉 博士	Executive Director, Foundation for Scholarly Exchange Fulbright Foundation, Taiwan, Republic of China ***sa-jiao* 撒嬌 *: An important concept in understanding Chinese students' social behavior***

10:30 - 10:45 a.m. 休息 **Break**

10:45 - 12:00 p.m. **Panel Session 1:** **Cultural Identity and Social Growth of Chinese and Chinese American Students**

Chair	
Dr. Peter Lee 李欽湧 博士	Associate Vice President, Faculty Affairs San Jose State University
Panelists	
Dr. Michael Chang 張錫宏 博士	Asian & Asian American Studies, DeAnza Community College and Cupertino City Council ***The Challenge of Identity Development for Minority and Immigrant Students in American Schools***
Dr. Yuhaw Eva Lu 盧又華 博士	School of Social Work, San Diego State University ***Cross-Cultural Clinical Services and Differential Helping Process Among Chinese, Asian American and Non-Asian American Clinicians***
Dr. Phylis Lan Lin 藍采風 博士	Department of Social Sciences, University of Indianapolis ***Stress and Coping***

12:00-1:30 p.m. **午餐及專題演講 Lunch & Keynote Speech**

Introduction of Keynote Speaker	Dr. Belle Wei 魏文憶 博士	Electrical Engineering, San Jose State University
Keynote	Dr. Rose Tseng 張蘊禮 博士	Chancellor, West Valley-Mission Community College District, California *Our choices create our future:* *A Chinese-American perspective*

1:30 - 2:30 p.m. **論文發表 Concurrent Poster Sessions (Ballroom)**

(Papers: see pages 35 - 104)

Group 1: Chinese Language Education Issues

Presenters:

Dr. Guang Yang 楊　光 博士	Beijing Normal University, People's Republic of China *Issues on Chinese Language Education in North America*
Dr. Liping Ma 馬立平 博士	School of Education, University of California, Berkeley *Chinese Phonetic Alphabet: Inspection of Its Role in Teaching Chinese Language to Overseas Chinese Children*
Dr. Terrence M. Doyle	ESL Department, City College of San Francisco, Alemany Campus *Chinese Parents and the Teaching of Chinese Outside Schools*

Chair:

Dr. Chi-en Hwang 黃琪恩 博士	Department of Psychology Cedarville College, Cedarville, Ohio

Discussants:

Ms. Theresa Hsu Chao 許笑濃 會長	National Council of Associations of Chinese Language Schools (NCACLS) Santa Monica, California
Dr. Diana Kouch 孫鳳傑 博士	Multicultural Education Research Center Union City, California
Dr. Stella Y.M. Kwoh 郭譽玫 博士	International Educational Consultations Palo Alto,California

Group 2: Instructionally Related Issues

Presenters:

Dr. Xianglei Chen 陳向雷 博士	MPR Associates, Inc. Berkeley, California ***Why Do Asian American Students Take More Academic Courses Than Caucasian Students in High School?***
Dr. Marilyn M.Y. Chi 紀李美瑛 博士	Division of Teacher Education, San Jose State University ***East Meets West Since 1839: The Meeting of Cultures and Chinese/ Chinese-American History through Chinese-American Children's Literature***
Dr. Mei-Yan Lu 盧美燕 博士	Instructional Technology Program, San Jose State University ***Beyond Drill and Practice:*** ***Incorporating Multimedia in Bilingual and ESL Classrooms***

Chair:

Dr. Winnie Tang 鄧仙齡 博士	Office of the Superintendent, San Francisco Unified School District

Discussants:

Dr. Xiao-Lu Hu 胡曉璐 博士	Counselor Education Program, San Jose State University
Rita Wang 王　田 教授	Asian Studies, City College of San Francisco
Ms. Henrianne Yee 余嘗君 校長	Forest Park Elementary School, Fremont Unified School District

Group 3: Learner Characteristics Issues

Presenters:

Dr. Liang-Tsu Hsieh 謝良足 博士	Department of Applied Foreign Languages National Ping-Tung Institute of Commerce, Ping-Tung, Republic of China ***Cultural Learning/Adaptation and Acculturation in Second Language Acquisition***
Dr. Shwu-Yong Huang 劉淑蓉 博士	College of Education, University of Houston ***Investigating Mathematics Classroom Behaviors of Asian American Students***
Ms. Shu-Ling Wang 王淑玲 女士	School of Education, University of Southern California ***The Impact of Self-Efficacy and Task Value on Taiwanese College Students' Effort and Achievement***

Chair:

Dr. William Lan 藍　雲 博士	Division of Educational Psychology and Leadership Texas Tech University

Discussants:

Ms. Shu-Ling Chen 陳姝伶 顧問	Bay Area Chinese Mothers' Group, Northern California
Ms. Mary Jew 周惠卿 主任	Department of Bilingual Education, San Francisco Unified School District
Peter Hsia 夏成銘 顧問	Association of Northern California Chinese Schools Cupertino, California

Group 4: Education Reform Issues

Presenters:

Dr. Lu Chang 常　璐 博士	Department of Education, College of Notre Dame, Belmont, California ***Education Reform and Teacher Training in China***
Dr. Wei-Non Shu 許蔚農 博士	International Trade Department National Ping-Tung Institute of Commerce,Taiwan. Republic of China ***Developing the Relationship between the Vocational Education and Job market in Taiwan***

Chair:

Dr. Wang-Lee Cheng 程萬里 博士	Department of Design and Industry, San Francisco State University

Discussants:

Dr. Gong Chen 陳 工 博士	Center for International Sports & Human Performance, San Jose State University
Ms. Ju-Ching Liu 劉竹青 副會長	National Council of Associations of Chinese Language Schools (NCACLS)

2:30 - 2:45 p.m. **休 息 Break**

2:45 - 4:00 p.m.	**Panel Session 2:**	**Chinese Language Teaching and Learning: A Cantonese and Mandarin Perspective**
	Chair	
	Dr. Chen-Ching Li 李振清 博士	Director, Taipei Economic and Cultural Office in the United States, Cultural Division, Washington, D.C.

	Panelists	
	Dr. Chen-Ching Li 李振清 博士	*The Prospect of Chinese Language and Culture in the 21st Century Education*
	Dr. K.C. Leung 梁啓昌 博士	Foreign Languages, San Jose State University *Teaching Cantonese in a Non-Cantonese Environment a Comparison with the Teaching of Mandarin*
	Dr. Chaofen Sun 孫朝奮 博士	Asian Languages, Stanford University *Writing Styles, Technologies and Their Implications*
	Ms. Liana Sezto 司徒林志儀 校長	Alice Fong Yu Elementary School, San Francisco Unified School *The Implementation of the Chinese immersion Programsin San Francisco Unified School District: Fron Theory to Practice*
	Ms. Shirley H.L Lee 李小麗 校長	Chinese American International School, The Institute for Teaching of Chinese Languages San Francisco, California *Students learning through Two Languages at Chinese American international School*
4:00 - 4:15 p.m.	**休 息 Break** (Coffee & Tea, Change room to upstairs St. Claire Room)	
4:15 - 5:30 p.m.	**Panel Session 3:**	**Parental Involvement in School Learning**
	Chair	
	Dr. Li-Rong L. Cheng 劉麗蓉 博士	Assistant Dean, College of Human Health and Human Services, San Diego State University
	Panelists	
	Dr. Li-Rong L. Cheng 劉麗蓉 博士	*Struggle to be Heard: a Call for Redefinition of Achievement*
	Mr. Ben Liao 廖本榮 會長	Asian American Parents Association, Cupertino Unified School District *Working Together for a Common goal - From a Parent Group's Perspective*

	Ms. Jane Chiu 蕭建蘭 主席	Bilingual Advisory Committee, Forest Park Elementary School, Fremont Unified School District ***Ways to Enhance Children's School Learning through Parental Involvement***
	Ms. Sin-Yee Poon 潘倩儀 副主任	Parent Relations San Francisco Unified School District ***The Importance of Parental Involvement in School***
5:30 - 6:30 p.m.	**Membership General Meeting**	
	Chair	
	Dr. Allen M. Huang 黃茂樹 博士	President, CAERDA
	Agenda	會長交接 會務討論

北美華人教育研究及策劃協會
1996 年度年會論文集綱要
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sa-jiao: An Important Concept in Understanding Chinese Students' Social Behavior

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sa-jiao is a very common behavior among Chinese people, but what actually is *sa-jiao*? What is the structure of and motivation for *sa-jiao*?

The anthropologist Dr. L. K. Sun (1990) used the concept of *sa-jiao* in his analysis of human relationships. He considered *sa-jiao* to be the use of soft, subtle tactics to influence people, establish relationships, and ingratiate oneself to another. The goal of *sa-jiao* is to, without directly revealing one's motives or demands, make people understand one's intentions and adjust their behavior or actions to accord with those intentions. In vertical relationships, *sa-jiao* is a type of influence tactic directed by a person of lower rank or status toward someone of higher rank. *sa-jiao* is also commonly observed in lateral relationships, those between individuals of the same generation or rank. Chinese-Americans may often use *sa-jiao* in the context of American culture and society. What specific tactics of *sa-jiao* they use and to peoples of what ethnic background they *sa-jiao* with depends on how they perceive their own ethnic group.

This common, yet very complex behavior is often misinterpreted by those unfamiliar with it. Chinese students studying in the U.S. are often disappointed that their *Sa-jiao* expressions and mannerisms are misunderstood by their American advisors and professors. Scholars and graduate students fluent in Chinese and English regularly translate *sa-jiao* as "whining." But the definitions of "whining" in English dictionaries fail to adequately explain *sa-jiao*. Chinese-English dictionaries define *sa-jiao* as "to act as a pampered child," "to act as a spoiled child," or "to pretend to be angry or displeased." But, these definitions are clearly narrower in scope and more negative in connotation than either Dr. Sun's concept or the *sa-jiao* behavior as commonly observed in everyday life.

In 1994, my research associates, J. S. Kuo et al. and I established a *sa-jiao* research group (Hwang 1994; Wu, 1996; Wu and Kuo, 1996). We first administered an open-ended questionnaire to a group of 214 Chinese subjects from all age groups in order to collect self-reported examples of and motives for *sa-jiao* behavior. Then we surveyed 297 university students and performed a factor analysis on the results to provide a basis for revising the original list of behavior and motives. The data was finally revised into 47 items descriptive of *sa-jiao* behavior and 20 items descriptive of motives for *sa-jiao*. Along with these items, the final questionnaire included six categories of targets of *sa-jiao*, and seven items of attitudes toward *sa-jiao*. This questionnaire was given to 785 university students. The results of factor analysis yielded ten characterisic factors. These factors were: intimate body contact, retreating for the purpose of advancing (performing the opposite behavior to induce the desired effect), soft talk, whining, childish or childlike behavior, begging and flattery (ingratiating behavior), faking pain or discomfort, longing gazes, paying compliments and giving sympathy, and smiling and humor. These ten factors had a Cronbach alpha between .67 and .94.

The motives for *sa-jiao* yielded five factors. These five motivations were: to improve relationships (ingratiate oneself); to reduce boredom by teasing and engaging in other silly behavior; to express one's emotions; to seek favor or attain a specific goal; to reflect or express one's personality. The Cronbach alpha of these factors were .85, .72, .75, .65, and .75, respectively.

In order to understand *sa-jiao* behavior among children as an indicator of social growth, we surveyed 719 fifth and sixth grade elementary school students. We discovered that the factor structure of every scale was similar to the results of the research done on university students, though with almost every factor's Cronbach alpha was higher than those for university students. Surprisingly the attitude of elementary students toward *sa-jiao* was far less positive than either that of university students or adults. In general, female had relatively stronger attitudes toward *sa-jiao*. Of the six targets of *sa-jiao* behavior, with the exception of attitude toward opposite sex classmates, female attitudes were clearly higher than male attitudes. Of *sa-jiao* behavior, female attitudes were stronger than male attitudes for four factors: soft talk, whining, childish or childlike behavior, and paying compliments and giving sympathy. There was no significant difference between male and female attitudes for the remaining factors. Of the five motives for *sa-jiao*, there was no significant difference between male and female attitudes. Taking all subjects together, a sense of humor, self-disclosure, and creative personality traits were all positively correlated with *sa-jiao*. As for the relationship between *sa-jiao* and attachment style, avoidant children were much less likely to *sa-jiao* than either secure or anxious-ambivalent children.

In order to understand Chinese people's social growth, *sa-jiao* is a vital and complicated concept to be explored. The ability to effectively and positively "*sa-jiao*" may be one of the important elements of Chinese emotional intelligence (EQ). To balance academic achievement and social growth among Chinese-American children, educational researchers and professionals may have to return to what is basic and unique to Chinese social behaviors.

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Our Choices Create Our Future: A Chinese-American Perspective

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Abstract

Drawing on her experiences as a Chinese-American who immigrated to the U.S. at 19, as a mother of two, and as a professor and educational leader, Dr. Tseng discusses the impact of choice in today's increasingly global, collaborative society.

Summary

As we approach the 21st century, Chinese-Americans enjoy a great advantage in the fast-approaching global society. They serve as world ambassadors, helping to bridge the East and West through language.

Well positioned to capitalize on the many opportunities offered by a true global society, we also face its challenges. One of the most significant is the element of choice, which underscores the ability to succeed at the highest levels in the international world of education and business.

The introduction of new technologies at a dizzying pace...the need for retraining massive segments of the American workforce...the rewriting of all the old organizational "rules" the flattening of organizational structures...the changing of leadership styles from authoritarian and directive to collaborative and team-based...the increasing numbers of telecommuters...and the growing emphasis on diversity in business and society — these trends signal the need for independent, flexible leaders and professionals whose knowledge is well rounded, whose experiences are varied, and whose people skills are exceptional.

Such attributes, in turn, derive from skill at making choices — a skill not historically emphasized in the traditional culture of our homeland. Yet, opportunities abound for expanding our experiences and strengthening our choice-making abilities.

The more we take advantage of these opportunities to broaden and diversity our knowledge and experience, the better we position ourselves and our children to contribute to the coming global society — and to reap its manifold benefits.

The Challenge Of Identity Development For Minority And Immigrant Students In American Schools

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Abstract

Combining socio-political conceptions of schooling and personal experience as a teacher and a former governing board member of a public school district, I address the problem of identity development for Asian American students and the role of community participation in American schools. First, I identify identity development as a perennial issue affecting young Asian Americans. Drawing on the works of Paulo Freire, Martin Carnoy, and Mwalimu Shujaa, a distinction is made between "education" and "schooling", noting that one can indeed have a lot of schooling without receiving an adequate education. I then identify personal identity development and social growth of minority and immigrant students as an area of education that tends to be particularly challenging for most American schools. These problems may be understood in terms of historical, cultural, institutional factors in American society and education. To address the problem of identity development for minority and immigrant students at the K-12 level, schools need the help of thoughtful community input and participation at different levels. Minority and immigrant students will benefit when students have opportunities to challenge common misconceptions and stereotypes associated with them, leading to greater identity clarification and increased understanding and acceptance by others.

Presentation Outline

I.. Introduction: (1) Identity development as an important but inadequately addressed problem for Asian American students at the K-12 level. (2) The need for school and community to work together to address this issue. These interrelated challenges are approached from the socio-political perspective of education and personal experience as a teacher and a former elected school board member.

2. The importance of identity development for children: Identity development or formation may be thought of as a process of identity clarification, affirmation, and actualization. Identity development is important for personal and social growth of children and affects both self-image and social behavior. Positive development of identity produces a healthy self-image, unleashing a sense of self-confidence and efficacy.

3. Yet, for a majority of young Asian American, the issue of identity is a troubling topic--often eliciting such negative feelings as ambiguity, uncertainty, lost, inferiority, marginality, conflict, guilt, and shame. The vast majority of Asian American writers from Carlos Bulosan, Frank Chin, Maxine Hong Kingston, Amy Tan, and others write about identity crisis as the central theme of their books. Indeed, the issue of identity crisis is the

perennial issue par excellence in Asian American literature. My own college students write journals about their identity revealing the startling level that this fundamental issue remains unresolved and a source of anguish even as they enter adulthood.

4. While identity development is a continuing and pervasive preoccupation throughout the school years in America, yet a variety of historical, cultural, and institutional factors make this identity development for minority and immigrant students a particularly challenging endeavor for many American schools.

5. Schooling and education: In understanding the socio-political aspects of education, scholars such as Paulo Freire, Martin Carnoy, Mwalimu Shujaa have made a useful distinction between schooling and education as separate if overlapping processes. Formal schooling, functioning in part as an institution of social maintenance, tends to perpetuate the existing social relations and hierarchy along such characteristics as race, class, gender, nativity, ethnicity. In contrast, education may be viewed as a learning process that is essentially reflective and critical in nature. As such, education questions the saliency of the above characteristics when addressing the same issue of identity development.

6 Educators and parents have to choose between a schooling process which tends to reflect and pass on uncritically (and often unconsciously) conventional stereotypes, prejudices, and social boundaries, or, alternately, choose educational opportunities that would deliberately and critically evaluate the same conventional stereotypes, prejudices, and social boundaries. This choice has real effects on the identity development process of minority and immigrant students.

7. Thoughtful community input and cooperation with schools can create: a) an awareness of this identify problem and its major issues, b) a dialog to discuss strategies and provide feedback, and c) a mutually supportive effort between school and immigrant students to implement a multi-year strategic plan.

8. Through the interest shown by community and school, teachers are provided resources and encouragement to challenge common misconceptions and stereotypes about minority and immigrant students. As a result, these students benefit from greater clarification of identity, grater self-esteem, and increased understanding and acceptance by others.

Cross-Cultural Clinical Services and Differential Helping Process Among Chinese, Asian American and Non-Asian American Clinicians

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Abstract

Previous Research indicates a disproportionately low service utilization rate and a high drop out rate among Chinese or Asian Americans receiving mental health services. Findings suggest that many of the factors accounting for this problem are related to cultural and linguistic mismatches. Research findings also indicate that better treatment outcomes have been achieved by clinicians who spoke the same language (Lu, 1993; Lorenzo & Adler, 1984;& Kin, 1985). And not all treatment studies showed differential outcomes on the basis of the clients' race or ethnicity. These research findings seem to indicate that ethnicity/race per se, is not sufficient to guarantee better treatment outcomes. Rather, the explanation for higher success rates lies in clinicians' linguistic/cultural sensitivity and competence in their effective working relationship with clients.

The focus of this presentation is to report findings of a recent study on "the implications of clinicians' bilingual/bicultural background on the clinical process among Taiwanese-Chinese, Asia Americans, and Non-Asian American children workers." Specifically, the clinicians' goal attaining styles, their clinical assessment, and intervention strategies are identified components of this cross-cultural research. Two research strategies were applied in this research, a questionnaire survey(Achieving Styles Inventory-ASI) given to 130 clinicians and 12 in-depth interviews, to obtain a both qualitative and quantitative data in an effort to answer the inquiry.

The statistic analysis, such as, t-test and Bonferroni t-test, were used to compare the mean difference among the three groups. The mean scores of ASI for the Taiwanese-Chinese group is significantly higher than the non-Asian American group. Additionally t-test were applied to examine the differences on age, gender, and marital status; between group mean score differences were found in each variable. Subsequently, 12 interviews were conducted with clinicians from all three groups. A case vignette was developed as the basis for the interviews; data analysis was based on a content-analysis approach. The findings showed both similarities and differences among the three samples. Both similarity and differences could be identified throughout the helping process, such as clinical assessment, goal setting, and intervention strategies.

Stress and Coping

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Stress is simply the adaptation of our bodies and minds to life demands. Stresses come in every form and every intensity, and can range from the chronic to the acute. Stress is inevitable. Stress is universal. Since you can't get rid of it, you need to learn how to use it to your advantage. You need to learn how to manage stress and make stress work for you. You need to learn to "enjoy" stress.

While stress management is commonly thought to include diet, exercise, relaxation, and sometimes problem-solving, joy of stress is something more. It is an understanding of the nature and the sources of stress. It is an awareness of self, others, and the definition of the situations. It is a recognition of proper perspective in life philosophy.

Participants in stress workshops frequently request a list of simple suggestions they can follow to reduce the stress in their lives or cope with it better. Unfortunately, there are no simple or universally effective solutions to the problem of stress management. We are all unique, and what works well for some of us maybe totally ineffective for others.

The following techniques represents an approach that has worked well for someone somewhere; some of them may be effective for you.

I. Become knowledgeable about stress
    1. A stress overview. Stress and stressors
    2. Discover your stress signals

II Self awareness and emotions
    1. Come to terms with your feelings
    2. Develop effective interpersonal skills
    3. Develop workplace skills
    4. Concentrate on positive spiritual development

III. Time management
    1. Manage your priorities and develop good organizing skills
    2. Set realistic goals
    3. Manage details and compartmentalization
    4. Use only the best fuels
    5. Learn to delegate

IV. Take action

1. Take a systematic approach to problem solving
2. Establish and maintain a strong support network
3. Develop a lifestyle that will buffer against the effects of stress
4. Commit yourself to relaxation, proper diet, and exercise
5. Create a stressless home

V. Become a quality person

1. Decide where you are, where you want to go and chart the route to your destination
2. Periodically assessing their progress
3. Take control of your career
4. Improve your marital life: Re-evaluate the relationship
5. Improve your mind, body, and appearance
6. Stop procrastinating

The Prospect of Chinese Language and Culture In the 21st Century Education

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The Age of Possibility Amid the Wave of Education Reform

Amid the accelerating campaign for education reform in the United States and in the Republic of China on Taiwan, pluralistic concepts of educational philosophy and various approaches to quality education have been employed as the bridge to the future. Diversified components leading to the ideal education of the twenty-first century have been expounded, and pragmatic mandates and vision indispensable for equipping the young generation to tackle the future challenges have been raised for scrutiny.[1] All these movements are compatible with numerous predictions about the future of our world.

According to the latest report of *Education in States and Nations* (Phelps, Smith, and Alsalam 1996), indicators of educational variables tend to change not only from state to state in the United States, but also in all of the industrialized nations in the past decades.[2] From the universal evolution point of view, this type of volatile nature is predictable in a transcendental perspective. Thus, the role and impact of the Chinese language and culture, which used to be dismissed as obsolete and old fashioned, is going to emerge in the twenty-first century as cutting edge concept to be espoused by intellectuals.

In his well publicized best seller *Future in Sight* , Barry H. Minkin (1995) predicted that by the year of 2088, minority will become the U.S. majority. And Asian Americans will become continually more visible in business and education on the West Coast and will have higher rates of success as entrepreneurs than any other minority group. Minkin further asserted that the wide cultural diversity reaching our shore will generate a distinct culture of its own that will be neither traditional " American" nor identical to the country origin. What is the significance of this futuristic presupposition in relation to the teaching of Chinese as a second language (henceforth, CSL) in the United States? How does the anticipation imply the prospect of CSL in the 21st century?

Minkin's prediction about the future development of the United States has indeed shed new light on visible strategic planning currently pondered both by educational administrators and school teachers of all levels in the United States. In his education revamping campaign, US Secretary of Education Richard W. Riley has been actively promoting the teaching and learning of foreign languages so as to help build up good characters of the youth in the United States. Secretary Riley's emphasis on foreign languages, diversified cultures and traditional and family value has direct linkage to the future goal of education of the United States, namely, Goals 2000. Although the result of this educational effort is not completely visible, the campaign has much to do with the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language in the western world. The prediction of Minkin has coincided with Secretary Riley's educational campaign as well as my observation of CSL in the American educational institutions ranging from elementary to post secondary school levels.[3]

On May 23, 1996, the First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton also unveiled the modern value of cultural and linguistic diversity in the present society. In her keynote speech at the commencement of University of Maryland, College Park, Mrs. Hillary Rodham Clinton cited from President Bill Clinton that the twenty-first century is an era of possibility, coupled by diversity. Under this context, the diversified learning of cultures and languages is essential to all potential intellectuals of the future world. Education of the twenty-first century, according to the speech of President Clinton in Princeton University in June 1996, is a major mission as well as a key investment for social advancement, a reality that no one should ignore.

The Role and Impact of Chinese Language and Culture

To justify the claims of Minkin and the campaign of Secretary Riley, as well as the proclamation of President and Mrs. Clinton, I often employ the views of Dr. Wei-fan Kuo, former Minister of Education of the Republic of China, and A. Ronald Walton, Deputy Director of National Foreign Language Center, on reinventing the traditional culture and language fields of Chinese. It is my belief that during the turn of the century, we should focus on areas that will affect the teaching, learning, and research of CSL that has been proven to be essential in the future development of international communication and economic development in general, and their impact in the Asian Pacific region in particular. In his meeting with Dr. Wei-fan Kuo on November 8, 1995 in Washington, D.C., the US Secretary of Education Richard W. Riley stated in strong terms that the traditional value of the Chinese culture, moral and ethic concept, family value, etc., are what modern educators should employ to education of the twenty-first century. Secretary Riley's statement is derived from the current social development of the United States. It is his conviction, as stated in the 1994 National Forum of Education Commission of the States (ECS) and the Future of Education Policy, that learning foreign languages, particularly Chinese, is essential to help build good characters of American students. In this conjunction, the learning of Chinese as a second language in the United States and its feasible impact on education should be elaborated.[4]

Development in CSL is also compatible with a new trend of language learning which is being generated based on cultural manifestation, educational globalization, as well as scientific and technological innovation. The overall development of educational technology and pedagogical implementation at the turn of the century has also aroused enthusiasm in CSL innovation after all. From the traditional naturalistic approach to foreign language learning to the application of current multimedia instruction and revolutionary technology for cyber Chinese, we have envisioned a new pattern for the implementation of CSL instruction and learning. This measure which integrates traditional and contemporary scientific concepts will be proven to be efficient for materializing the successful teaching leading to the eventual goal of Chinese learning, cultural appreciation as well as efficient communication in a macro level.

The Growth of CSL Programs in the United States

Indeed, the role that foreign languages play is essential to all fields in the future world in the twenty-first century. And the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language is even more strikingly essential due to the social and economic development as well as demographic change of the Asian Pacific region, partially indicated in *Future in Sight* by Barry H. Minkin.

By contrasting the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language in the 1930s and now at the turn of the century in the United States, one will be encouraged to find that while there were only a handful of elite higher learning institutions offering the Chinese programs, there are right now 439 colleges and universities actively engaged in the teaching and learning of Chinese language, culture, and other related area studies. The attached table has indicated the steady growth of CSL in the United States. By all means, the continuous increase of US higher learning institutions offering CSL programs has much to do with international cultural and political relations. For example, the number increased drastically after the economic booming created first by the " Four Little Dragons of Asia" , and then by the miracle of Taiwan. The rapid growth of enrollment at the Mandarin Training Center of National Taiwan Normal University since 1980 has justified the presumption that westerner intellectuals are not only interested in the Chinese language and culture, but also aware of the fact that Chinese is going to become one of the major international languages needed for global affairs. (See Figure 2 for the increase of foreign students attending the Mandarin Training Center.)

Unfortunately, the number of students signing up for Chinese studies decreased noticeably right after the 1989 Tiananmen Square Massacre. By 1996, CSL programs have revived, and students from North America, Europe, Northeastern Asia, and even Eastern Europe are heading for Taiwan and mainland China for field studies and special immersion programs planned on the native turf. The programs at the Mandarin Training Center of National Taiwan Normal University, Inter-University Program (IUP - Stanford Center) in Taipei, Princeton (University) in Beijing, the Johns Hopkins University in Nanjing, as well as many others are remarkable, and have attracted large numbers of students from all over the United States for language learning and Chinese studies.

During the 1996 Association for Asian Studies (AAS) annual meeting held in Honolulu, a special round-table discussion was arranged. Reports from Vivian Ling of IUP, and representatives of the Johns Hopkins University, CIE and myself, have justified the intrinsic value and necessity of CSL programs overseas. Indeed, there are excellent and successful CSL programs in Middlebury College, Harvard, Georgetown, UC Berkeley, Yale, Princeton and the small liberal colleges such as Vassar, Smith, Williams, Wellesley, Dartmouth, etc., and yet, international CSL programs designed for students to learn on the native turf is not only indispensable, but also beneficiary to students eventually. This is both theoretically and pragmatically justifiable.

CSL for Education Revamping and International Development

A culturally oriented and sociolinguistically significant language such as Chinese is a great asset in the language world. With its evolution and cultural value sustained over the past three millennia, the modernized traditional Chinese language has been proven to be an entity that is of great value to modern education. Concept of morality and ethics highly regarded by US Secretary of Education Richard Riley for revamping US education in general, and K-12 in particular. His conviction has justified the theory proclaimed by Prof. Wei-ming Tu of Harvard University that the traditional and Confucian values are instrumental to modern society and education of the twenty-first century. This argument presented in the University of Maryland China Regional Seminar of " Confucianism and the Chinese Diaspora", February 7, 1996, was endorsed by Prof. Ying-Shih Yu of Princeton University, and Prof. Anthony C. Yu of University of Chicago. For educators in the western world, the argument in favor of the traditional value and moral concept should not be alienated from general educational programs. And more specifically, it is essential for the learning of Chinese as a second language to be implemented so as to take advantage of the modern consensus of integrating traditional value and modern high-tech.

The implementation of CSL is of value to international development as well. The proclamation released by President Bill Clinton in November, 1994 after the Asian Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) Summit in Indonesia has a direct correlation with CSL of the twenty-first century. In that essential document, Clinton announced that a Free Trade Agreement in the Asian Pacific region will be implemented by the year of 2020. Again on November 16, 1995, President Clinton reiterated the same notion, and reaffirmed that the Free Trade Agreement will be implemented in 2020 for developing nations, but 2010 for developed nations.[5] Judging from the current economic development and trading activities in Asia, I have envisioned that the Chinese language will become the most popular international language next in importance only to English by the year of 2020.

The significance of this international trade agreement is obvious in relation to CSL in the United State. As the world is becoming increasingly diversified within the sphere of a global village, CSL can never be alienated from the global affairs. Instead, efficient teaching and learning of CSL in the United States has witnessed its direct and positive contribution to not only economic relations and technological development, but also current world affairs. In this conjunction, a better appreciation of the new trend of CSL in the 21st century is indispensable for social, economic and political development of both Asia and the United States.

After all, it is of vital importance to learn Chinese in the modern world. Here in Washington, D.C., I heard American professionals speaking fluent Chinese all the time. The great majority of them have learning experiences in Taiwan, and they are now active in all sectors: the Federal Government, the US Congress, banking industry, international trades, high-tech businesses, academic fields, and journalism, etc. I have been honored to have the chance of meeting many of them, and carrying on our conversations mostly in Chinese rather than English. I am also delighted to organize in San Francisco and Washington, D.C.

Symposium for American Scholars/Professionals Formerly Studying in Taiwan. They lectured and discussed not in English, but in fluent Chinese. Listening to these *Laowai* (foreigners) speaking decent Chinese really makes me proud of them.

Judging from the global development of all sectors, one should cast no doubt that at the turn of the century, the teaching of Chinese as a second language is marching into a new version as well. Addition of innovative technology to the traditional practices has drastically enhanced the learning and teaching of this rapidly recognized language which at one time was regarded as one of the exotic, or less commonly taught languages.

The Prospect of CSL in the 21st Century

The advancement of contemporary computer technology has shed new light on rekindling our CSL teaching and research approaches. Louis Gerstner explicitly remarked that computer industry will change the way we do business, the way we teach our children, how we communicate, how we interact as individuals (USA Today 1995 B-1). I also share with The Wall Street Journal Reports (1995) that new " technology has the potential to revolutionize education, but we aren' t there yet." Indeed, college and high school campuses all over the United States provide an insight into how technology may change the nature of instruction as well as the style of learning. During the past decade, educators and language instructors all hoped that multimedia CD-ROMs could stimulate students in a way that textbooks failed to do. It is time now that we can initially crystallize our focus on this area of technology application to the teaching of various aspects of the Chinese language, ranging from lexical item perception and production, reading and writing skill development, self-paced studies, culture learning in an animated manner, portfolio approach, recognition and production of simplified as well as traditional Chinese characters, etc. All these can be best acquired through the approach of "learning on the native turf" as well as desirable education reform in a reasonable scale.

The theme of modern education is tilting toward internationalization and diversity. Under the pretext of genuine modernization of education and social development, it is imperative that all the Chinese ethnic groups residing abroad in the North America encourage their children as well children's children to embark on the active learning of Chinese as a second language.[6] After all, they are going to take advantage of this approach culturally and linguistically. What is happening in the Asian Pacific region economically and socially has justified not only my prediction, but also the proclamation of President Bill Clinton. The social development in the North America society has mirrored the direction and value of traditional Chinese culture and language. Moreover, we should feel more compelled to embark on this mission of preserving and magnifying the Chinese traditional value while its language is being deteriorated right after the Cultural Revolution, due primarily, to undesirable political and social development.

It is my hope that the students pursuing the learning of Chinese language and culture here in the higher learning institutions in North America should travel afar to Taiwan and other Chinese-speaking communities to learn the language and its culture on the native turf.

By doing so, they can practice it in the genuine society: Taiwan, China, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaysia, even Indonesia and Thailand, depending on what professions the learners are going to get involved in. It will be a rewarding experience to find oneself capable of making use of what one learns in Taiwan, and convert the language skills into useful tool of lifelong professions. The professional achievement of innumerable Americans who are versed in the Chinese language and culture have confirmed the necessity of cross-cultural and cross-linguistic learning. They have thus justified not only the prospect of Chinese as a second language in the twenty-first century, but also witnessed the invaluable role of CSL in the mainstream society of the western world. Despite growing uncertainty in the diversified world, they have accomplished their goals with expectation built upon the learning of Chinese language and culture, both of which are needed for harnessing the challenges of the twenty-first century.

End Notes

[1] A series of publication and programs intended for Goals 2000 have been launched in the United States under the leadership of Richard W. Riley. In the meantime, active education reform has been a major national issue in the Republic of China on Taiwan under the leadership of former Minister of Education Wei-fan Kuo, and current Minister Jin Wu.

[2] *Education in States and Nations* (Phelps, Smith, and Alsalam 1996) is merely one of the hundred of publication pertinent to US education reform. Other publications include books and pamphlets on traditional value, family value, parental involvement in education, and development of mathematics, sciences, and reading, etc.

[3] Although the teaching of Chinese as a second language (CSL) is not as prevalent a field as English as a second language (ESL) in the United States, it is emerging gradually as a main interest in all types of schools in the United States. In some states such as Minnesota, New Jersey, Delaware, CSL has gained more and more attention even in the K-12 level, not to mention ethnically diversified states such as California and New York.

[4] Education Commission of the States (ECS) continued to further unveil the similar mandates focusing also on moral education in its 1996 annual meeting in San Antonio, Texas.

[5] *The Washington Post*, November 16, 1995

[6] According to statistics surveyed by the National Association of Chinese Schools, there are 82,675 American students of the Chinese ethnic background, K-12, currently taking CSL in the 634 weekend heritage schools. There are 8,681 CSL teachers hired to teach the various CSL programs. However, the vast majority of these teachers are amateur, not academically or professionally trained for serving the functions.

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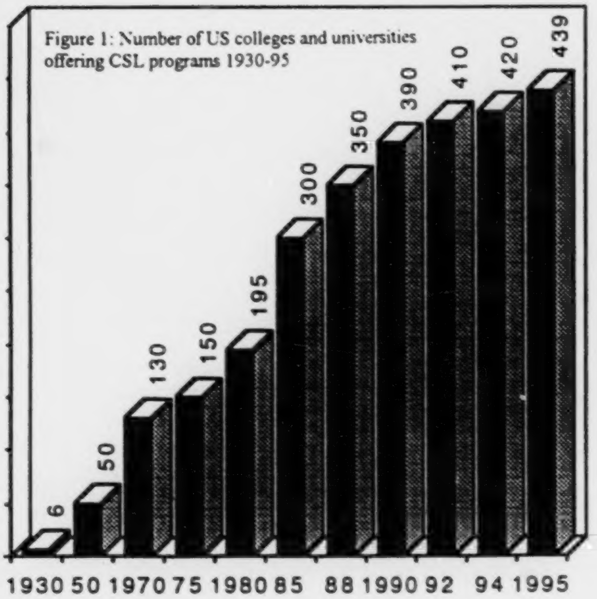

Figure 1: Number of US colleges and universities offering CSL programs 1930-95

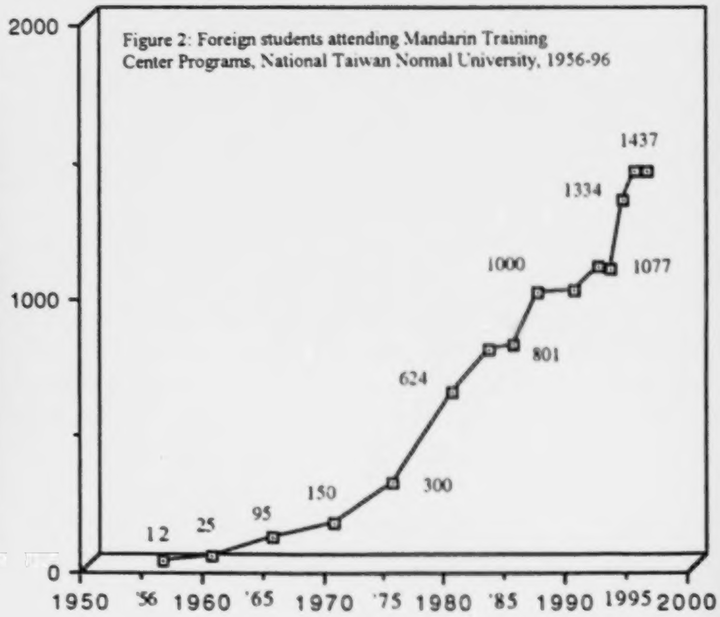

Figure 2: Foreign students attending Mandarin Training Center Programs, National Taiwan Normal University, 1956-96

Teaching Cantonese in a Non-Cantonese Environment - a Comparison with the Teaching of Mandarin

K.C. Leung
San Jose State University

The Non-Cantonese environment refers to places outside China where the teaching usually takes one of two forms: (A) teaching the spoken language alone, or (B) teaching speech, reading and writing. While the lack of up-to-date textbooks based on a communicative approach poses a challenge in both cases, the difficulties confronting (B) are far greater, due to the fact that there is a huge gap between speaking on the one hand and reading and writing on the other -- Cantonese students in a Cantonese environment speak Cantonese but actually learn to read and write something else, namely, *baihua* (or even *wenyan*). Thus teaching (B) in a non-Cantonese environment is not unlike teaching two languages. Other challenges include large class size (usually larger than the Mandarin class), the lack of supporting materials (e.g., videotapes, software), the lack of popular standardized romanization system (and teachers who know any system), and the lack of a pedagogical scholarship on Cantonese *per se*, despite an abundance of material on Cantonese linguistics and the teaching of *baihua* to Cantonese-speaking students. This paper discusses the above challenges in detail and compares them with those presented in the teaching of Mandarin.

Writing Styles, Technologies and Their Implications

Chaofen Sun
Stanford University

In my paper I will discuss the evolutionary history of the Chinese Writing scripts and the related concurrent technological developments to show that both 繁體字 and 簡體字 are products of the Chinese culture. I will demonstrate how the emergence of scripts like 篆書, 隸書,行書,楷書,簡體字 etc. can all be related to the technological developments, as well as various socio-cultural factors. After the invention of 毛筆, there appeared 篆書 (the seal script) during the Warring-States period; after the invention of paper, 行書(the running script)emerged during the six dynasties; the invention of printing techniques co-incided with the introduction of 楷書(the standard script) in the Tang Dynasty; the popularity of college education and the substitution 毛筆 of with pencils, fountain pens, ball-pointed pen as the primary instruments of writing ushered in the 簡體字; etc.

In light of history, I will argue that, regardless of the personal preference of the language instructors, students of Chinese in a free society should be instructed to acquire the capability to read both types of writing, 繁體字 and 簡體字, as the fundamental objective of a liberal education is to broaden the vision of the students and to encourage the young minds to broaden the vision of the prejudice. The fact that publications representative of the totality of the Chinese Culture are commonly printed in either 繁體字 or 簡體字 should forbid us to promote one variety by suppressing the other as inferior, as this amounts to deprivation of our students of the opportunities to be exposed to the ideas that are expressed in the stigmatized variety. In my opinion, all students who have completed two years of study in any reputable Chinese program should be able to read 繁體字 and 簡體字 easily.

Students Learning Through Two Languages at Chinese American International School

Shirley H. L. Lee
Chinese American International School

It was stated in a study undertaken between 1991 and 1994 by Donna Christian from the Center for Applied Linguistics that there are over 160 schools in the U.S. currently offering two-way immersion education. However, Spanish remains the most prevalent target language in U.S. programs. Out of 169 two-way immersion programs studied, 155 schools are Spanish/English programs, other languages included are Cantonese, Korean, Navajo, Japanese, Russian, Portuguese and French. It is obvious that the study only focused in public schools. And yet, there are two-way immersion programs in the private sector which also share the goals of bilingual proficiency, academic achievement, and positve immersion program offered in Chinese American International School confirms the positive effect of educating both language majority and language minority children, and that both public and private sector are affected by common factors, namely issues like student enrollment program design, and instructional features.

The Implementation of the Chinese Immersion Programs in San Francisco Unified School District: From Theory to Practice

Liana Sieto
Alice Fong Yu School

Immersion education is an exciting and innovative program in which children develop the ability to speak, read, and write in a second language. The program goals include academic achievement, language proficiency, and cultural appreciation. The implementation of the Chinese Immersion Programs provide great opportunities for the children in San Francisco. A successful program requires the commitment and dedication of many groups of professionals and concerned individuals. The parent community plays an important role in the process as well. Its is also critical to understand language acquisition theories, curriculum improvement, and staff development in order to design an effective program.

Struggle to be Heard: A Call for Redefinition of Achievement

Li-Rong Lilly Cheng
San Diego State University

As this nation becomes more diverse, it is important to record and understand the history we share as well as the unique experiences the different groups have. There is no doubt that this nation has become more multilingual and multicultural (Crawford, 1992; Minami & Ovando, 1995). Although research has been devoted to ethnic, cultural and linguistically diverse populations, the research tends to be general. Often Asian Americans are lumped together as one group; in recent years, Asian Pacific Islander Americans have been grouped in one category for discussions (Banks & Banks, 1995). Yet there are not only major intergroup differences but also intragroup differences as well (Trueba, Cheng & Ima, 1993).

This paper is focused on two topics of researchable issues concerning the Chinese American populations in the United States. The first, in the area of parent-child interaction, is the definition of achievement; the second, in the area of academic achievement, is special education services. Case studies will be used for purposes of illustration.

Demography and Chinese American Population

The Asian American school-age population has increased more than six-fold from 211,900 in 1960 to almost 1.3 million by 1990. In 1990, 40% of Asian Pacific American children were first generation, 44% were second generation, and 15% were third generation. By the year 2020, Asian American children in U.S. schools will total about 4.4 million. Chinese Americans were among the first immigrants from Pacific Asia and the growth of the Chinese American population has been rapid in recent decades.

According to the U.S. Census 1990 (cited in Jiobu, 1996), the largest number of immigrants to the U.S. is found among the Chinese. Among the total Chinese American population in the United States of 1,648,000 (22.6% of all Asian Pacific Americans and 0.7% of all Americans), 1,160,000 (70%) were immigrants, and 488,000 were native born. The following information is a summary of the vital statistics of Chinese Americans:

- 59% of Chinese Americans born in the U.S. are under 19 years of age, while only 14% of immigrant Chinese Americans are younger than 19.

- Among those born in America, only 8% have less than high school education, but among the foreign born 29% have less than high school education.

- 51% of U.S.-born Chinese have a bachelor degree or higher, compared to 39% of the immigrants.

- 48% of the U.S. born reported speaking only English; only 5% of the immigrant population reported speaking only English.

- 31% of the immigrant population reported speaking no English or little English.
- In 1990, 575,447 persons 5 years of age and older spoke Chinese in California homes.
- 56% of U.S.-born Chinese Americans reside in the Pacific region of the U.S. (mainly in California), 19% reside in the Mid Atlantic region (mainly in New York State).
- Of Chinese immigrants, 48% reside in the Pacific region and 25% reside in the Mid Atlantic region.
- The top five states chosen by Chinese immigrants for intended residence were California, New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Illinois (Shinagawa, 1996) (see Table 1).

Table 1: Top Five States Chosen by Chinese Immigrants for Residence

California	New York	New Jersey	Mass	Illinois
34.2%	21.8%	4.2%	3.7%	3.5%

In the last two decades, more Chinese from all over the world have come to the United States for a variety of reasons. Unlike those who came to the U.S. previously, recent immigrants come to live with their families, do business, or study. Additionally, after 1975, a large influx of Chinese came as refugees from Southeast Asia, where they had constituted the business class (Chan, 1992). Furthermore, recent immigration from the People's Republic of China after the June 4, 1989 Tienanmen Square incident, and from Hong Kong in anticipation of China's 1997 takeover, meant large numbers of immigrants for political and related reasons. Uncertainties for the future have driven Hong Kong and Taiwan-based Chinese to settle in North America. Most of them settle in coastal regions (on the east or west coast) where there are large Chinese settlements such as Flushing in Queens, New York or Monterey Park in the Los Angeles area of California.

A Call for Redefinition of Achievement

Researchers in education, sociology, psychology, linguistics, ethnography, anthropology, ethnic studies, cross-cultural studies, policy studies, political science and other related fields have been discussing the following topics: the "model minority"; limited-English-proficient (LEP) forever students; identity; acculturation; mental health issues; juvenile delinquency; school success and failure; the "glass ceiling"; bilingual language acquisition; and adjustment issues. For further reading, refer to Chang, 1995; Chang, Lai, & Shimizu, 1995; Cheng, 1995, Cheng, in press; Guthrie, 1985; Ima & Kheo, 1995; Kao & Tienda, 1995; Matsumoto, 1994; Park, 1996; Peng & Wright, 1994; Pollack, 1992; Sue, 1988; Sung, 1987; Takaki, 1989; Trueba, Cheng, & Ima, 1993; Trueba & Zou, 1994; Tzeng & Hung, 1988 and Wong-Fillmore, 1985. None of the above topics is unique to Chinese Americans; these topics have relevance to research relating to all displaced populations. Chinese immigrants to the U.S. have different levels of education and economic power. Some rely on the social welfare system for assistance, while others are engaged in multinational multimillion-dollar businesses. Their children range from Westinghouse scholars attending Ivy League universities to criminals who are put away behind bars. The following case study provides a glimpse into the dynamics of parent -child relationship and how it may affect the redefinition of achievement (see Table 2).

Table 2: E-mail message: Voices from Chinese American Youth

The information age is rapidly bringing the world into our classrooms, offices and homes. The following message, available through the Internet (Yang, 1996), raised the voices of Chinese American youth to an international level.

How to be a Perfect Chinese Parent: A Second Generation Perspective

1. Be a little more lenient on the 7 p.m. curfew.
2. Don't ask where the other point went when you child comes home with a 99% grade on test.
3. Don't "ai-yoh" loudly at your child's clothing.
4. Don't blatantly hint about the merits of Hah-Phoo (Harvard), Yale-uh (Yale), Stan-phoo (Stanford), and Emeh-I-Tee (MIT).
5. Don't reveal all the intimate details of your child's life to the entire Chinese community.
6. Don't ask your child, "What are you going to do with your life?" if he or she majors in a non-science field.
7. Don't give your son a bowl haircut or your daughter two acres of bangs.
8. Don't try to set your teenagers up on dates in anticipation of their poor taste or inept social skills.
9. Incorporate other phrases besides "Did you study yet?" into your daily conversation with your children.
10. Don't ask all your children's friends over the age of 21 if they have a boy/girlfriend yet.

How to be a Perfect Chinese Son or Daughter: A First Generation Perspective

1. Score 1600 on the SAT.
2. Play the violin or piano on the level of a concert performer.
3. Apply to and be accepted by 27 colleges.
4. Have three hobbies: studying, studying, studying.
5. Go to a prestigious Ivy League university and win a full scholarship.
6. Love classical music and detest talking on the telephone.
7. Become a Westinghouse, a Presidential, and, eventually, a Rhodes Scholar.
8. Aspire to be a brain surgeon.

9. Marry a Chinese-American doctor and have perfect, successful children.
10. Love to hear stories about your parents' childhood...especially the one about walking 7 miles to school without shoes.

From the children's eyes, clearly the messages expressed the following impressions that children have about their parents' expectations and their defining of achievement:

- Parents live by the traditional rules of the home (old) country.
- Parents have high expectations of their children in all areas.
- Parents do not understand the cultural meaning of privacy. They talk about intimate details of their children's lives and ask inappropriate questions.
- Parents have sob stories to tell, none of which is relevant or relates to what is happening now.
- Parents have one-way discourse using predictable patterns: "Did you finish your homework?"
- Parents apply what they think is good and proper for their children, including setting up dates, dressing , hair-styling and dictating what is socially acceptable.

Parents may learn from this message by trying to understand the following key points:

- Discourse rules in the mainstream American culture differ from discourse rules in the Chinese culture.
- The definition of a well-rounded student in the United States is very different from that in China.
- Adolescents do not want to look, act, or be treated differently from their peers especially in dress, telephone habits, hair styles, and curfew.
- Messages youth get from schools, peers, and media play an important role in shaping their everyday behavior.
- Their role models may be very different from those their parents admire.
- Young people do not relate to something that they have no direct appreciation of, such as walking to school without shoes.

Academic Achievement: A special Education Focus

In a large-scale high school study conducted in 1992 by Steinberg, Dornbusch, and Brown (cited in Peng & Wright, 1994), Asian Pacific youngsters were more likely than all other groups of students to state that their parents had high, explicitly defined standards for academic performance. These students reported that their parents would be angry "if they came home with less than an A minus" (p.726). Schneider and Lee (1990) found that 100% of Asian Pacific American children said that "C" or "satisfactory" grades were not acceptable. With such parental attitudes, what children with disabilities and children who are "low achievers" have to go through becomes more intensified and multiply challenged.

Not all Chinese American children are successful academically. The success of many Chinese Americans has received attention in the media, yet many students are at risk of failure in school. Within the Chinese American groups, there are also subgroups sharing language, culture, socio-economic status, immigration history, experiences, and connections through friends and families. This is especially notable among some recent immigrants who enter the U.S. at puberty and are placed in public schools, while their parents return to their home country. Factors placing these students at risk of failure include:

- Questionable family supervision after school;
- Lack of role models at home;
- Lack of participation in school/class;
- Lack of participation in extra-curricular activities;
- Tendency to cluster in small groups sharing the same home language;
- Lack of progress in English;
- Lack of guidance and counseling for career/life goals;
- Lack of guidance in time management and financial management;
- Lack of productive activities after school; and
- Lack of involvement in the mainstream community.

A major question that needs to be addressed is the provision of special education services for Chinese American children. Are their needs being met or are they considered "smart" and are not receiving the proper help? The following case study of a populous school district provides some preliminary answers. Demographics are rapidly changing in many parts of the U.S. In a southern California School District, for example, the top five language groups in 1994 are presented in Table 3. The increase of Asian population within this school district is shown in table 4. Furthermore, Tables 5 & 6 provide data on Asian students in special education.

Table 3: District Home Language Count:

Asian	English	Spanish	European	Middle East
42.5%	34.2%	22.1%	0.45%	0.41%

Source: Dung & Mudd (1994).

Table 4: Increase of Asian Population

Ethnic	1960	1969	1970	1979	1980	1989	1990	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Anglo	32306	85.4	24476	50.5	13552	25	7129	11.7
Hispan	4391	11.6	16477	34	21079	38.8	19031	31.4
Asian	1113	2.9	7441	15.3	19046	35	34022	56
Black	11	<0.1	111	0.2	661	1.2	330	0.5
Other							226	0.4
Total	37821	100	48505	100	54338	100	60738	100

Source: Fong (1994)

Table 5: Special Education Home Language Count

English	Spanish	Asian	Armenian	Arabic
60.6%	21.9%	17.3%	0.13%	0.07%

Source: Dung & Mudd (1994)

Table 6: Representation of Language Groups in Special Education

	Asian	English	Spanish	Middle East
Language Count	42.5%	34.2%	22.1%	0.41%
Special Education	17.3%	60.6%	21.9%	0.2%
Representation	40%	177%	99%	48%

Source: Dung & Mudd (1994)

Future Studies

As Bailey (1995) and Kanter (1995) indicated, the future work force will be more diverse and competent. Globalization is the new world reality; innovation, education and collaboration must be emphasized. Bailey (1995) also asserted the need for educating students in global thinking abilities, language competence, cultural sensitivity, and negotiation skills. A better understanding of Chinese American children and youth will help in the education of a competent and diverse work force. Clearly, future research in the Chinese American population needs to focus on the following topics to gain a deeper understanding of social, cultural, linguistic, political and psychological realities. Investing in our children is an investment in our future; the positive and productive development of all children is the best investment we can make.

- Intergroup and intragroup differences (e.g., the new immigrant vs. the American born; unaccompanied minors vs. immigrant families; the rich investment cohort vs. the welfare dependent);
- Generational differences, conflict, maintenance and adaptation (e.g., the marginal vs. the acculturated; the success stories vs. the criminal cases; collectivism vs. individualism);
- Identity formation and identity crisis;
- Choices and processes in acculturation (e.g., rejection vs. assimilation; mainstream vs. ethnic identity);
- Process of early socialization, social identification, and empowerment (DeVos, 1990; Freire, 1973) (e.g., success vs. failure; model minority vs. school dropout; the "glass ceiling" vs. upward mobility; modesty vs. assertiveness; humility vs. self promotion);
- The role of the home language (e.g., BICS and CALP; bilingual vs. monolingual; development of L1 and L2); (Cummins, 1981);
- Learning style differences: locus of control; field dependent vs. field independent; impulsivity vs. careful reflection (Irvine & York, 1995; Messick, 1984; Tiedemann, 1989);
- Role of parents and parent expectation: parents as resources;
- Role of teacher and teacher expectation: the teacher as social mediator (Vygostky, 1962, 1978; Wertsch, 1981, 1991);
- Ethnography research applications (Trueba, 1992; Trueba, Cheng & Ima, 1993; Trueba & Zou, 1994) ;
- Efficacy of ESL;
- Efficacy of cultural therapy;
- Research on the Chinese American population across the life span; and
- Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparisons among API populations.

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Working Together for A Common Goal - From a Parent Group's Perspective

Ben Liao
Asian American Parent Association

Presentation Outline

1. The Community: How does the demographic changes affect the community?
2. Our Vision: Fairness and justice for all
3. Teamwork at work: Mobilize the community
4. My personal experiences
5. Looking ahead: Our children, our future

In this presentation, I would like to talk about the community in Cupertino, Asian American Parent Association, and some of our experiences as a parent group.

Ways to Enhance Children's School Learning through Parental Involvement

Jane Chiu
Fremont Unified School District

Presentation Outline

1. Create good communications with your children's teacher
2. Be the resource for good school program
3. Join the committee or attend the parent meeting that makes school improvement possible.
4. Look for the opportunities to strengthen your children's social skill and leadership development through your involvement in school.

The Importance of Parental Involvement in School

Sin Yee Poon
San Francisco Unified School District

Presentation Outline

I. Importance of Parent Involvement

- A. Parent Involvement allows us as parents to increase success rate of our children
- B. Parent Involvement allows us to increase success rate of all children
- C. Most importantly, Parent Involvement allows us to advocate for our children

II. Ability of Chinese parents to access information and "know-how" of involvement to increase success rate

- A. Definition of Parent Involvement -- State framework
- B. Lack of access to culturally and linguistically appropriate information
- C. Traditional perspective on education works against involvement

III. Advocacy -- politics of involvement

- A. 25% of SFUSD students are Chinese -- yet , parents least vocal, least likely to receive attention and services

- B. Immigrant parents, in particular, need political education to understand:
  1. how the system functions
  2. the political power of parents
  3. the importance of overcoming the cultural view of being a "guest" in a foreign country
  4. the importance of changing the role they play

- C. Parent Issues
  1. bilingual education
  2. school choice

華文教育中的幾個問題

楊光
北京師範大學

一、漢字的簡化趨勢

清末以來，許多愛國先輩和有識之士致力於語言文字改革，如改文言為白話，實行漢字潢排，提倡漢字讀音統一等等。早在1992年，錢玄同先生就在當時教育部國語會上提出《簡省現行漢字的筆畫方案》，並形成了有關組織予以推行。1934年，錢先生鑒於上海出版界使用了數百個“手頭字”，編成了一部《簡體字譜》，並向國語會提出方案，經大會通過，次年由當時教育部公布第一批簡體字324個。這是簡體字第一次得到官方承認並正式公布。五十年代中期以後，中國大陸又陸續公布了幾批簡化字（不作簡化偏旁用的簡化字350，可作簡化偏旁用的簡化字132個，簡化偏旁14個，簡化字1753個，另有停止使用異體字39個）。

五十年代初期，台灣在推行國語運動的同時，就有人提出文字改革問題·關於漢字改革的社會意義，蔣介石曾經說：“為大眾寫的文字而不能大眾化，那如何望其有效？我們須知文字是大眾達意表情取得知識和爭取生活的工具……所以簡體字的需要是生活的需要。”(1) 1953年十二月，蔣又強調：“簡體字的提倡甚為必要。”(2) 當時台灣一些民意機關和社會人士曾多次提出簡化漢字的建議。1951年6月，馬有岳提出《請政府頒制常用簡易漢字》的議案，並得到了台灣省參議會大會決議通過。(3) 1953年四月，台灣召集專家學者舉行了簡化文字座談會，6月份成立了由15人組成的簡體字研究委員會，準備擬定簡體字方案。(4) 1953年9月，羅家倫在國民黨中央委員會舉行的一次會議上發言，呼籲進行文字改革。(5) 次年他又在《中央日報》發表了長篇文章—《簡體字之提倡甚為必要》。這些努力在社會上產生了很大的影響。可見這個時期，台灣許多人士對漢字簡化是贊同、支持的。

五十年代中期以後，漢字簡化問題被政治化、簡單化了，於是很難有公正、客觀的論述和批評。進入八十年代以來，台灣越來越多的有識之士開始呼籲漢字改革，在漢字簡化的合理性和必要性上取得了不少共識，認為簡化漢字是社會的需要，“用個人或政府的力量使其不變是不可能的”。有不少台灣學者肯定大陸實行漢字簡化所取得的成績，呼籲台灣要面對這一事實。台灣《華文世界》1991年59期刊載《正視大陸簡化字》(楊祚德)一文。作者說：“遇事不能單憑道聽途說或遊戲性臆測，應作理智的決定和判斷，反對簡化字的問題亦不例外。”“願讀者諸君正視大陸簡化字的概況，畢竟它已存在了二十多年，有其不容忽視的影響。”台灣1992年海外華文文字教學座談會紀要也認為：“台灣及港澳一帶的華人使用正體字，中國大陸及新加坡的華人使用簡體字，而中文一旦公開使用後，便成為華族歷史的一部分，不管喜歡不喜歡，它都不會在歷史上消失。”(6) 這些言論反映出台灣對大陸簡體字的認識和態度已經有了很大轉變。還有一些台灣學者贊成漢字簡化，但又因這樣或那樣的原因把漢字簡化和大陸的漢字簡化區別開來。

台灣《國文天地》編輯部於1989年組織了一次“文字簡化面面觀座談會”。台灣清華大學林安梧在會上說：“文字簡化是趨勢，是需要，我們必須擺脫政治的干擾，還文字本來面目，讓它繼續朝該有的簡化方向前進……這種簡化不是大陸化……應制出一套符合文字學化的簡明字體。”(7) 也有一些台灣學者承認簡化是漢字發展的趨勢，但主張任其自然發展，不要人為地加以干預。也有人不同意這種自然發展論，認為：“標準化就帶有強制性……要求文字應該有一致性、漂準化，卻不希望政府來干涉，這是矛盾的。”(8) 當然反對漢字

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簡化仍有人在，主要是兩種意見：一種認為未來主要使用電腦，很少提筆寫字，簡化已沒有必要。另一種是仍採用六、七十年代那種政治批判的方法，不過，這種言論目前顯然少多了。

目前在台灣，有相當一部分人主張“識繁寫簡”。1993 年 6 月 25 日《中央日報》(海外版)刊登了杜學知《漢字繁簡二體由比較見長短》一文，認為：“繁簡字既各有所勝，使不可偏廢，簡體字利於書寫，可用為‘手寫體’之字，繁體字利於認讀，可用於‘正式文件’。” 1993 年台灣召開了一次“中國文字統一之路”學術研討會(由太平洋文化基金會、台灣師大文學院等共同主辦)。台灣大學心理學系教授鄭昭明在會上提出了一個關於漢字“書體”與“寫體”分開的可行性研究報告。他建議“兩岸中文印刷用正楷，避免字形語意混淆；書寫時，使用簡體字改善書寫的困難，化解簡繁之爭”。當然，在台灣學術界，並非人人贊成“識繁寫簡”，但一般都承認，台灣社會已經形成某種程度的“識繁寫簡”的用字狀況。有的學者指出：“兩岸都在用簡體字，是一項不爭的事實.....(在台灣)一般人的書寫傾向於用很多簡體字，只是數量比起大陸所用的明顯地減少許多。” [9] 1980 年台灣出版《標準行書範本》，使手寫簡體字有了一個規範。這個範本所收 4000 字中，有 600 多字與大陸簡化字相同或相似。對於兩岸未來文子統一的前景和做法，台灣學者也提出了一些看法和設想。台灣中華語文研習所董事長兼所長、《思與言》雜誌發行人何景賢博士在一次座談會上談到，隨著兩岸交流的日益增加，彼此應以對方的方便使用文字，應以容忍的態度，讓時間來做決定。在兩岸同文同種基礎上，正簡字將走向同化而非排斥，將來會有一套包容正、簡二種新的“綜合體”文字出現。[10] 1994 年初，“兩岸漢語語匯文字學術研討會”在台北舉行。在這次交流中，兩岸學者都贊同“異中求同，求同存異”的原則，表達了盡快解決兩岸語匯文字差異的共同願望。這次會議可以看作是雙方朝“最終走向大同”這一目標邁進的成功一步。

客觀地講，四十年來中國大陸推行《漢字簡化方案》確實取得了積極成果。這些簡化字其中絕大部分是時間久遠，流行範圍廣泛的簡體字，繁簡之間字形聯系緊密，易於轉換，且數量相對總數近六萬的議字來說只佔很小比重，並不給識繁體字的人增加額外負擔。從科學性上講，這些簡化字從整體上講並未損傷漢字的內在肌理系統，也未引起混淆不清的狀況。當然，至於某些漢字如何簡化更好些，還是可以研究、商榷的。從實踐上看，四十年來中國大陸推行簡化字方便兒童識字，掃除文盲，普及教育，發展文化事業方面確實起到了促進作用。目前，簡化字不僅在中國大陸全面普及，而且已被東南亞一些國家採用，如新加坡、馬來西亞等國家已將簡化字作為華文的規範文字。簡化字還得到了國際社會和聯合國的正式認可。海外華人和港、澳、台同胞掌握簡化字的人數也在日益增多。

海外教育究竟是採用簡體字還是繁體字呢？目前的狀況是繁簡並存。在海峽兩岸的政治問題沒有解決之前，漢字的繁簡選擇就只能隨君所好，維持現狀，留待以後解決了。就筆者從事華文教育教學的經驗看，簡化字對少年兒童初識、書寫是較為方便、實際的，教學效果也是比較好的。在目前情況下，我比較贊成“寫簡識繁”的做法，這樣不僅自身可以得到簡便和效率，可以和使用簡化漢字的最大人群順利交流，還順應了漢字簡化的趨勢和潮流，是面向未來的一種現實選擇。當然，“寫繁”也最好能夠“識簡”。我想，“繁簡漢字的統合”以及“兩岸語匯表述差異”等問題最終一定能夠得到解決，從而使古老的中國文字在新的形勢下，在更高的科學層面上“走向大同”。到那時，海外華文的文字形態就能做到統一標準，有章可循了。

二、《漢語拼音方案》的作用

辛亥革命後，北洋政府教育部於 1913 年設立讀音統一會，其任務是規定漢字的標準讀音，制定一套給漢字注音的字母。 1918 年教育部公布了新制定的“注音字母”(拼寫北京語音用 37 個字母)，這是中國法定的第一套漢語字母，即目前台灣還在使用的注音符號一式。但由於民族形式的注音字母不能用於國際語文交流，於是當時南京政府教育部（大學院）在 1928 年又公布了一套“國語羅馬字”。這是中國歷史上的第二套法定的漢語字母，也是第一套法定的拉丁化（羅馬字）方案，即目前台灣 1986 年修改、定名的注音符號第二式。五十年代中期，中國大陸在以往創制漢語字母的經驗基楚上，經過三年的悉心研究，於 1958 年公布了《漢語拼音方案》，這是中國法定的第三套漢語字母，也是第二套法定的拉丁化方案。它放棄了國語羅馬字的字母拼調變化，採用注音字母的標調符號，放棄了聲母的變讀設計，全部聲母用專用字母；放棄了國內外分別使用兩套字母，統一用一套字母，便利語文教學和國際文化交流。目前，中國大陸已經不使用注音字母和國語羅馬字。 1958 年以來，中國大陸每年有初入學的小學生二千多萬人學習拼音，拼音已成為中國大陸中年和青年的基本常識。

漢語拼音方案有三條基本原則，即口語化：拼寫規範化的普通話；音素化：按照音素（音位）拼寫音節；拉丁化：採用國際通用的拉丁字母。 1977 年 8 月，聯合國第三屆地名標準化會議通過決議，採用《漢語拼音方案》作為拼寫中國地名的國際標準。 1982 年，國際標準組織(ISO)也通過了採用《漢語拼音方案》作為拼寫漢語的國際標準，並于同年 8 月 1 日發出了 ISO-7098 號文件，決定以《漢語拼音方案》作為世界文獻工作中拼寫中國專有名詞和詞語的國際標準。目前，《漢語拼音方案》在英語文獻中已得到了較廣泛的應用。

在這裡需要說明的是，拼音不是拼音文字。拼音雖屬廣泛使用，但是不作為正式文字。其應用主要包括給漢字注音、拼寫普通話、設計特殊語文、做漢字不便做和不能做的各種工作，如序列索引、圖書檢索、人名地名拼寫、術語和代號的拼音化、電報拼音化、中文信息處理等。

在華文教學中，由於漢字筆畫繁、字數多，多數字與音不相關聯，跟拼音文字國家相比，語文教學困難得多。為了解決這個問題，人們不斷創造不同的語文教學法。當前流行較廣的語文教學法有兩種：一是“集中識字法”，二是“注音識字法”。

“集中識字法”就是利用聲旁，認讀漢字，學一個，帶一串。先識字，後讀書，即在最短時間內，認識大量漢字，漢字認多了，自然會讀書。這是兩千年來的傳統識字法，缺點是“聲旁識字法”不能廣泛採用，因為多數聲旁並不能準確發音，於是只在不得已時才利用拼音，識了漢字，即丟拼音。

“注音識字法”就是“拼音學話，注音識字，提前讀寫”的方法。即先學拼音，利用拼音，學習漢字，識了漢字，不丟拼音，拼漢並行，兩兩對照，無師自通。另一方面，小學生利用拼音讀書本身就是學普通話，不會寫的字，可以先寫拼音，有利於在大量閱讀的同時，提前寫話（作文）。從歷史和現實的經驗看，“注音識字教學法”是較好的主流教學法。最早在清末“官話字母”的推廣中就得到成功。台灣利用注音字母掃除文盲，普及國語，進行識字教學成效顯著。在中國大陸，“注音識字，提前讀寫”發揮了《漢語拼音方案》在小學語文教改實驗中的作用，亦取得了成功的經驗。現在少數民族地區也採用這種方法學習漢語和漢文。近年來，利用拼音教學漢語，在外國留學生的漢語教學中，也得到了非常成功的豐富經驗。外國留學生也利用拼音學習漢語（口語），再利用拼音學習漢字，分兩步走，步步深入，容易理解和鞏固。

在海外華文教育中，我認為應當採取拉丁化的“注音識字法”。這對於一邊學英語、一邊學漢語的小學生是最重要的、也是方便的。注音方法當然可以包括注音符號第二式和《漢語拼音方案》。我覺得如果能夠使用《漢語拼音方案》為最好，至少也應使學生能夠認識和了解它。這是因為《漢語拼音方案》已是目前國際上通行的拼寫漢語的標準，這對於學生們來說，是重要的，也是很實際的事情。

注（1）、（2）、（3）、（5），見張博宇編《台灣地區國語運動史料》，台灣商務印書館，1974 年。

注（4），方祖燊等《六十年來之國語運動簡史》，載程發靭主編《六十年之國學》，台北正中書局，1972。

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注（7）、（8），見《文字簡化面面觀座談會發言紀要》，載台灣《國文天地》，1989 年 5 卷 2 期。

注（9），鄭昭明、陳學智《漢字簡化對文字讀寫的影響》載台灣《華文世界》，1991 年 62 期。

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漢語注音與海外華裔兒童中文教學

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說起當前周末中文學校的學生，有一個“通病”不能不引起我們關切：絕大多數的學生，甚至包括高年級的學生，讀課文主要是依靠課文的注音或拼音符號，一旦離開了注音符號，就沒法閱讀中文讀物。筆者以為，這種對漢語注音或拼音系統的過于依賴，是因為在我們的教學中，漢語注音被放到了一個不適當的地位。

自從1918年北洋政府公布漢語注音符號系統以來，中國數千年來直接認漢字的語文教學傳統被漸漸拋棄了，注音或拼音符號漸漸成為國內漢語語文教學中一個非常重要的角色。無論臺灣還是大陸，漢語語文教學都是通過注音或拼音啓蒙，通過注音或拼音引進漢字，學生的中文初讀也是依靠注音或拼音讀物，到了中、高年級，學生依靠注音或拼音查字典。這種潮流，自然也影響到國外華裔兒童的中文教學。漢語注音在漢語教學中的地位，幾十年來很少有人提出質疑，以至於“漢字非要通過注音或拼音符號來學習不可”成了人們心目中不言而喻的定論。可是，面對海外華裔兒童中文學習的上述“通病”，我們卻不得不懷疑：為什麼這些學生會離不開注音這根拐棍？漢字真的非得通過注音系統來教嗎？年輕的漢語注音系統在近幾十年裡改變了古老的漢語語文教學傳統，這種改變，有多少是合理的成份？是不是還有不合理之處？在漢語教學中，注音或拼音究竟應該放在甚麼樣的地位？研究和實驗中筆者有以下幾點體會，寫出來求教於諸位。

一、漢字不是拼音文字，不宜通過注音或拼音符號啟蒙

漢字不宜通過拼音啓蒙，是漢語漢字本身的特性所決定的。當今世界上的文字分為兩大陣營，一是拼音文字，一是漢字，二者有著根本的不同。拼音文字是由一串串字母作為記錄發音的符號（sign）組成的，是字音和字義二者的結合。而漢字則是一幅幅表達觀念、並且有相應單音節發音的圖形（image），因而是字形、字音、字義三者的結合。拼音文字的字義是靠字音一個點來支撐的，漢字的字義則是由字形和字音兩個點來支撐的，以字形為主，字音為輔。正是由於“形”的關鍵作用，漢字才可能成為世界上最為簡潔明瞭的單音節文字，並歷經數千年漢語語音的變化而保存下來。

漢字和拼音文字的不同特性，決定了它們不同的學習和認識方式。認讀拼音文字，在於根據記錄語音的符號逐個地把構成一個字（word）的數個音節逐個發出聲音（sound out）並且拼接起來，注意的是多個音節的特定組合和一個意義的對應。而認讀漢字，注意的則是一幅圖形、一個聲音、和一個意義三者的結合，此間字形的辨認起著決定性的作用。換句話說，學認拼音文字，首要的是發展拼讀能力，而學認漢字，首要的是發展辨別字形的能力。

在當今國內通過拼音進行漢字啓蒙的語文教學中，字音教學的過程不必要地拉長了，單音節的漢字，在教學中都先變成雙音節乃至多音節，然後再合成單音節，這無疑是畫蛇添足。學生大量的時間，花在拼讀那些他們已經知道讀音的漢字和抄寫那些漢字的注音上面，實在是很可惜的。更遺憾的是，這樣無謂的勞動，把學習漢字的主要特徵—字形的時間和精力擠掉了，使得識字效率大大減低。用拼音進行漢字啓蒙教學的危害，在於混淆了拼音文字和漢字不同的認識過程，在學童開始學習漢字的關鍵階段，沒有不失時機地發展

起他們對漢字字形敏銳的辨別和理解能力。

用拼音或注音進行漢字啓蒙教學的做法，給海外華裔兒童學習中文帶來的危害尤其嚴重。很多華裔兒童都有如下經驗：上中文學校一開始要花很長的時間學習“波、潑、摸、佛”，非常“boring”，學會以後，就以此為“中文”，“拐杖”再也丢不掉了。為學中文家長和孩子都作了很大的努力，學了多年孩子們卻依然和中文十分隔膜。這裡的一個根本原因，就在於學生是用認拼音文字的方法在認漢字，生活在英語這一拼音文字環境中的這些孩子，雖然學了多年中文，他們對漢字的認識能力實際上並沒有眞正地發展起來。可見，用拼音進行漢字啓蒙教學的做法不僅浪費了寶貴的學習時間，更有害的是無形中剝奪了學生發展漢字認識能力的機會。海外華裔兒童同時學習拼音文字和會意文字，本來是他們得天獨厚的促進智力發展的好機會，如今卻成了無數孩子充滿挫敗和無奈的學習體驗。正是用注音符號或拼音來進行漢字啓蒙教學的觀念和做法，貽誤了他們的中文學習，挫傷了他們的學習興趣。

基於以上認識，我們開展了直接認字的教學實驗，先入為主地培養和發展學生對漢字的領悟力。我們融合前人的“韻文識字”、“字塊識字”、現代的“集中識字”、“聽讀識字”等方法，發展出一套符合海外華裔兒童的語言特點和學習條件的直接識字教學課程。事實上，海外華裔兒童直接認字完全是可以做到的，而且，學生認字的積極性很高。

二、中文初讀依靠注音讀物是欲速則不達

國內現行的語文教學，無論大陸或臺灣，都是依靠拼音或注音讀物幫助學生初讀。這種做法所依據的理論是，學生用幾個月左右的時間學會了拼音或注音系統，就可以依靠拼音閱讀課外讀物了。其實，這個貌似合理的說法掩蓋著嚴重的弊端。第一、從學習過程上看，啓蒙階段的孩子依靠拼音讀漢語讀物，他們讀的不是漢字，而是漢字的輔助注音系統，他們的注意力被不合理地分散了。第二、從學習結果看，依靠漢語注音讀物來發展啓蒙學童的中文閱讀能力，是“欲速則不達”。用現行的語文教學法，一般初入學的學童花三個月左右的時間學會漢語拼音系統。即使他們從此就以借助拼音讀所有漢語讀物，（而實際上這是做不到的），他們距離獨立閱讀中文的階段還很遠。國內二、三年級小學生，有許多還在讀拼音注音讀物。如果採取不用拼音啓蒙，而用常用漢字先認的途徑，保守一點算，國內的孩子每天上學，每個月學認一百來個字，同樣是三個月的時間可以認上三百來字，就能開始閱讀初淺的中文讀物了。一年級結束認上七百來字，閱讀就可又上一個臺階；最多兩年，認到一千五百來字，即可進入中文自覺閱讀的階段。可見，用拼音做拐棍，學童中文閱讀能力的發展階段並沒有縮短，反之是拉長了。由於海外兒童學習中文的時間很少，我們的實驗以每年四個學期（每學期十周），平均每學期一百多字的速度，用三年的時間，逐步教學生認一千二百個以上的高頻常用漢字。用這樣的方法，一字不識的孩子，上了四次周末中文課，就開始獨立地讀句子；上了二十次課，就開始獨立地讀段落和童謠；上了三十次課，就開始獨立地讀短文了[1]。更為可喜的是，中文閱讀增強了學生的成就感，從而大大提高了他們的學習興趣。

三、注音或拼音在漢語語文教學中的作用，在於擴大字彙量和正音

當然，漢語注音或拼音系統在漢語語文教學中有其獨特的作用。學生在學習口語交流中未曾接觸過的新字新詞時，加上注音能夠適當減低難度；高年級學生查字典，也要依靠注音或拼音。注音或拼音還可以有效地幫助學生正音。在計算機技術日益發達的今天，漢語的羅馬拼音系統更是學生將來計算機輸入漢字的便利工具。因此，我們主張，在學生學

習了一定數量的漢字，發展起漢字字形的認識能力以後再教漢語拼音或注音系統。鑒於生活在英語環境裡的孩子的認識和書寫習慣，以及計算機輸入漢方面的考慮，我們認為教漢語羅馬拼音系統更為有利。

註[1]這些句子、段落、童謠和故事，都是根據學生所學的漢字撰寫而成。

Chinese Parents and the Teaching of Chinese Outside Schools

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Abstract

This participatory study examined the attitudes of eight immigrant Chinese parents living in San Francisco towards the maintenance of Chinese among their children. The study focused on dialogues between the researcher and the eight parents. The participants were treated as co-researchers and as sources of alternative forms of knowledge. The results show that all the parents want their children to learn Chinese and have confidence that they will. These parents are also concerned about their children's ability to succeed in school and compete with other children. Because ability in English is important to this success, three participants speak some English with their children. The researcher found four factors involved in this language maintenance situation: socio-political factors such as linguistic imperialism, philosophical factors such as the influence of the philosophy of Confucius on educating young children, psychological factors such as pressures to assimilate and peer pressure, as well as the various pedagogical practices these parents use to teach their children Chinese. One of the most interesting findings of this research was the variety of informal methods the parents use to teach or encourage their children to learn Chinese. Their methods and also the thought and insight behind these methods reflect the strong desire of these parents have that their children will maintain their Chinese. The methods used by these parents to teach their children Chinese is the main focus of this paper.

Background of the problem

The value of maintaining one's home language is disputed by some educators, politicians, and members of the general public in the United States. But fortunately, some respected and influential researchers in the field of second language acquisition such Wong Fillmore (1991) argue that maintaining the home language is very important for immigrant families. She discusses the relationship between home language maintenance and family communication in immigrant families. Other researchers such as Cummins (1975) emphasize that access to two languages in childhood can accelerate the development of both verbal and non-verbal abilities. Cummins argues that development of the first language will facilitate the immigrant child's development of English.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was for both the researcher and the participants to gain a greater understanding about the issue of home language maintenance. In particular, I looked for answers to the following five interrelated research questions. However, in this paper, I will address the third question. The research questions are:

1. Why do Chinese parents want to maintain their home language?

2. Why might they not want to have their home language maintained?
3. What are some of the ways Chinese parents help their children to maintain their home language?
4. What is the parents' level of awareness about their children's educational and language learning process?
5. What is the parents' level of awareness about forces in the United States which may hinder their efforts to maintain their home language?

Theoretical Framework and Rationale

Broadly speaking, there are at least three theoretical constructs from the research literature and methodologies which were combined to form the theoretical rationale for this study. The first construct concerns the methodological framework used in this study. This construct actually involves two fields which are very closely related: participatory research and critical pedagogy. The influence of the work done by Freire (1970, 1973, & 1994), which provided the original impetus for the creation of participatory research, must be emphasized. Following the ideas of Freire, Park (1992), and Ada and Beutel (1993), the participants in this study were treated as active partners, indeed as co-researchers and as sources of alternative forms of knowledge. Also, critical pedagogy was involved in that participants were invited to engage in critical reflections on the topic of home language maintenance and on their individual growth experiences as they dialogued and reflected upon this topic.

The second construct is related to the work of those who have argued (Auerbach, 1993; Pennycook, 1994a & 1994b; Phillipson, 1992; Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988; Smith, 1995; Tollefson, 1991; Walsh, 1991) that research related to English language teaching, second language education, and bilingual education "cannot be isolated from the cultural and political contexts in which it is embedded" (Pennycook, 1994a, p. 692). While Phillipson (1992) and Tollefson (1991) focus on the global spread of English at the level of language planning and policy, and adopt a deterministic stance that defines this spread and resultant dominance of English as imperialistic, hegemonic, and linguistic, Pennycook (1994) building on the philosophical foundation toward knowledge of Foucault (1984) takes an anti-deterministic stance which emphasizes that the discourse or "worldliness of English" has facilitated and been facilitated by the spread and construction of English. Both of these points of view have great significance to help one understand how and why the English language has come to be dominant throughout the world.

Third, since this study concerns language and language learning, it was necessary to identify theories of language and language learning which could serve as a theoretical and conceptual basis upon which to be built. Halliday's (1978) functional model of language was used because Halliday has attempted to look at language and "linguistic processes from the standpoint of the social order" (p. 3). A model of language learning that takes into account sociolinguistic background, sociolinguistic patterns, and also the real-life hurdles the average child and adult face when s/he struggles to learn a language is also necessary for reference in this study. The model presented by Wong-Fillmore (1994) seems the most plausible theory of second language learning. Wong-Fillmore's model emphasizes that both the learner and teacher (or proficient speaker in an informal situation) must have sufficient willingness, need, and motivation to make an effort to communicate and that the teacher must provide access to the language and support to the language learner.

Methodology

For this study I used a participatory research design and followed the model of Ada and Beutel (1993). The participant parents were treated as co-researchers and as sources of alternative forms of knowledge. See Table 1 for the characteristics of the participants. I had extensive dialogues with the participants about their attitudes and practices concerning maintenance of Chinese in their families. All dialogues were tape recorded, transcribed, and analyzed. In analyzing these dialogues, I tried to identify their most important themes. The following results and implications are based on this analysis.

Table 1. Characteristics of the Participants

NAME	ROLE IN FAMILY	PLACE OF BIRTH	FIRST LANGUAGE	OTHER LANGUAGES	HOME LANGUAGES	NAME(S) OF CHILDREN	AGE OF CHILDREN
Allen	Father	Hubei, China	Mandarin	English	Mandarin English	Chen	6
Angie	Mother	Hong Kong	Cantonese	English Mandarin	Cantonese English	Hillary Bill	4 2
Connie	Mother	Hong Kong	Cantonese	English Mandarin	Cantonese	Gigi Ken	10 8
Dolby	Father	Hong Kong	Cantonese	English Mandarin	Cantonese	Gigi Ken	10 8
Mimi	Mother	Beijing China	Mandarin	English	Mandarin	Phoebe Salina	3 6 months
Shu Qin	Mother	Beijing China	Mandarin	English	Mandarin	Sherry	6
Xia Li	Mother	Guangzhou China	Cantonese	Mandarin English	Cantonese English	Tina	7
Yu Zhen	Mother	Guangzhou China	Cantonese	Mandarin English	Cantonese	Wilson Jason	5 5

Results

The results show that all the participant parents want their children to learn Chinese and have confidence that they will. They are also concerned about their children's ability to succeed in school and compete with other children. Because ability in English is important to this success, three participants speak some English with their children.

The parents in this study set forth nine useful ways in which they teach and help their children to learn Chinese. Every parents participated in this study agreed that the first and most important way is to speak to them in Chinese whenever possible. Yu Zhen very astutely recognizes that one day her children will probably want to speak English at home, so she has a plan to keep speaking Chinese to them. She wants to be their permanent home language teacher.

> I think now at home I encourage them to talk Cantonese, but maybe when they are older they will speak English better, so I think when they come back home, they will speak English at home. So if I encourage them to speak more Cantonese, then we can keep Cantonese. Maybe this is the best way.

The second way is to give them assignments and help them learn from textbooks written for children in China. Allen, Xia Li, and Shu Qin all had the foresight to bring textbooks from China with them with which to teach their children Chinese. Shu Qin said that she teaches her daughter Chinese 45 minutes a day using vocabulary cards and textbooks she brought from China. When I visited Shu Qin's home, Shu Qin showed me many such cards which she had hung on the walls of her living room. Angie also mentioned using such cards.

The third way is telling the children stories in Chinese. Connie strongly believes in this method. She finds stories of interest to children such as detective stories from Chinese magazines, and then she retells her children these stories and asks who the thief is or where they stole the things, or where the money went. Dolby also mentioned telling stories as a better method than trying to teach vocabulary in isolation; he complained that the teachers at his children's Saturday Chinese school rely on this vocabulary method too heavily. Dolby suggested that telling stories about Chinese history would be a good method.

The fourth way, watching Chinese TV, was mentioned by only one parent, Xia Li, who said that her daughter Tina liked Hong Kong TV very much. She likes Chinese singing shows and Hong Kong story programs. In fact, when I visited Xia Li's home, Tina was eager to show me a video tape containing a Hong Kong singing program and also the Miss Hong Kong beauty pageant. However, Xia Li said that Tina also likes cartoons in English. The other parents mentioned only that their children liked to watch TV in English; none mentioned that their children liked Chinese TV.

The fifth way mentioned by these parents as a good way for their children to learn Chinese is to send them to Chinese Saturday school. The children of Connie and Dolby and Yu Zhen attend such a Saturday school, but no parent praised the classes as being very good. As mentioned above, Dolby criticized the teaching methods. Yu Zhen simply described the school.

> I bring my sons to Geary and 18th Avenue, the Golden Gate Church, but that church has a short time to teach Chinese. They have, one day they have three

> hours at this church. But one and a half hours, they teach Chinese, and one and a half hours, they eat some food and learn some church songs and say some .....(prayers) .... I don't know how to call it. I think it's a short time to learn.

Xia Li's daughter was attending a Saturday school in Chinatown; she was studying Mandarin instead of her home language, Cantonese. Xia Li said that her daughter was very interested. But the second time I visited Xia Li's home, Xia Li said that her daughter had complained about going to this school because it was too far away from her home. She asked Xia Li to teach her at home instead, so Xia Li agreed to this request. Shu Qin said that she wanted to send her daughter to a Saturday Chinese class if they had one for Mandarin, but she did not know of any. So I put Shu Qin in touch with Xia Li, Yu Zhen, and another friend of mine, who is a Mandarin teacher at a Saturday Chinese school. Angie said that she did not want to send her daughter to a Saturday Chinese school because, as Angie's mother said, it is too much for a child to go to school on Saturday after going to school five days a week.

The sixth way, sending their children to China during summer vacations, was mentioned by three parents. Shu Qin said, "We still plan to send Sherry to China every summer vacation." Yu Zhen said she wants to send her sons to Hong Kong every summer for one or two months if she has the money. Yu Zhen's parents live in Hong Kong. Mimi and her husband have also thought about this method.

The seventh way is to send their children to a bilingual school. It was concerning this method that there was the most disagreement among the parents in this study. Three parents, Shu Qin, Mimi, and Angie, said that a bilingual school would be the ideal school for their children. For Angie's children, it is still a possibility. Angie's children are on the waiting list for a bilingual Cantonese-English school near her family's home in San Francisco. The trouble is that there is usually a three year waiting list, so if her daughter is not allowed to enter this September, she might give up and keep her daughter in the English-speaking school which she currently attends. Angie spent a long time describing this school (5 transcript pages) and complaining about various practices this school follows, but she concluded that they still want their daughter and later their son to attend this school because "it is a bilingual school. We have no choice." The other parents were either against sending their children to bilingual schools (Allen, Dolby, Connie, and Yu Zhen) or they did not have any opinion. Allen thinks that it depends on the child's particular situation.

> Yeah, it depends on the individual basis. Some kids, bilingual schools work for them. Some say, "No, I want a purely English class." This is not uniform. The parents have to decide. You evaluate your kid's situation. What is best for your kids? It depends on his English ability. Can he make it in his English class or not? Or do you need some transition period? That's up to the parents to decide.
> The eighth way, having them play with other Chinese-speaking children, was mentioned by Shu Qin. "Children speak stories, make games and write a little Chinese together, " said Shu Qin.

The ninth way, being a good role model, was mentioned by Dolby and also described and illustrated by Xia Li. In reaction to a story I wrote entitled "I wish I had learned Chinese when I was a child", which was about the concerns of Pui Yee, a fictitious mother from China, regarding her son's lack of interest in learning Chinese, Dolby said that Pui Yee's son is lucky because Pui Yee is a good model. Xia Li discussed her position as a role model for her daughter several times. Xia Li is herself a full time student at City College of San Francisco, so she has a lot of homework herself. Xia Li said about her daughter Tina, "She likes to study with me. Sometimes I do my homework. She moves the chair with me."

Besides these nine methods for teaching their children Chinese, I found two other related themes. The first concerned the difficulty in teaching and motivating their children. This issue was the most important for Shu Qin, who is pessimistic about her child's chances of maintaining Mandarin. Dolby also discussed the lack of appropriate textbooks available in the United States and the no credit issue, which he brought up a couple of times in our three dialogues. He said it is a very important reason why the children perceive there is a lack of need to learn Chinese. Dolby said, "The major issue here is because this is America, right? They will not give some Chinese as a credit to study, right?" Connie also said that even though she does not want to send her children to a bilingual school, she would like her children to learn some Chinese in school, as an elective. Kim (1996) discusses this importance of credit and the beneficial effect of the decision by Educational Testing Service to include Korean as one of the languages tested in the SAT exam. Finally, both Connie and Dolby emphasized using the right psychology when trying to teach children Chinese. About this theme Dolby said, "Just give them some interest and say this is just learning for fun, only. Just don't push them so hard. Then it will be easier to learn." Also, as has been mentioned before, Connie advocated creating interest in learning Chinese by telling stories which her children find interesting.

Implications

Based on these findings I conclude that home language maintenance among Chinese families is a very crucial issue not only for the parents but also for political and educational leaders, classroom teachers, and second language acquisition researchers. Implications for the latter three groups are discussed in Doyle (1996). Here I will discuss the pedagogical implications for the parents. First, I believe that these and other Chinese parents should strive to be creative home language teachers and try to make their children interested in learning Chinese. Pushing children too much, as Dolby, Connie, and Angie suggest, is not effective. Rather they should remember that everybody has a different way of learning. Second, I feel that it is helpful to be a good role model. Teaching one's child by example, as Xia Li does, is recommended. If a parent is studying English or some other subject, encouraging one's child to study by example is more helpful than only telling the child to study hard. Third, I strongly believe that the parents should keep on trying to speak to their children as often as they can in Chinese. It is often overemphasized that it is easier for children than for adults to learn a language. But children do not maintain their home language automatically. It is a difficult ordeal for them. Children need to study their home language and they need the help, encouragement, and support from good teachers. Chinese parents and grandparents are their most important Chinese teachers!

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Why Do Asian American Students Take More Academic Courses Than Caucasian Students in High School?

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Summary

Course-taking is one of the most important determinants of students' learning in school. Previous research has demonstrated that students who take more academically rigorous courses learn more than those who do not (Delany, 1991; Garet & Delany, 1988; Gamoran, 1989, 1992). A growing body of research found that Asian American students take more academic courses than Caucasian peers in high school (Berryman, 1983; National Center for Educational Statistics, 1994; Peng, 1984). This course-taking difference between the two groups remains even after family and student characteristics typically considered as important determinants of students' choice of courses - e.g., family socioeconomic status, students' previous academic achievement, and parents' and students' educational expectations - are controlled (Chen, 1996). This evidence suggests that besides family and student individual factors, school may play an additional role in inducing course-taking difference between Asian American and Caucasian students.

Despite many reports of academic course-taking behaviors of Asian American students during recent years, research so far has offered few explanations for this phenomenon. Do Asian American students take more academic courses than Caucasian students because they are more motivated to succeed in school? Is it because their parents push them much harder for educational success? Or is it because the structure of school curriculum influences Asian American and Caucasian students differently, resulting in the gap in academic course-taking between these two groups? These questions represent the central inquire of this study.

The data employed in this study come from the base-year and first follow-up of The National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88), a general-purpose, federally funded study of the educational development of American children (Ingels, Scott, Lindmark, Frankel, & Meyers, 1992). This national survey began in 1988 and targeted a nationally representative of 8th-grade students in middle-grade schools. Two years later (1990), these same students were resurveyed as part of the first follow-up. Data from families, students, teachers, and schools pertaining to student's learning process and outcomes were collected.

This study reveals three important findings: (1) In the early years of high school, Asian American students take more academic courses than Caucasian schoolmates; (2) this course-taking difference is contributed by three important sources of influence - i.e., family, student, and school. Asian American students take more academic courses than Caucasian students partly because of academic push from their parents as well as high educational goals they set for themselves; (3) this difference is also attributable to school's curriculum structure and policy for graduation requirements. The difference is *reduced* in schools where course offerings are more academically focused and where graduation requirements are higher. The difference is *widened* in schools where the proportion of academic courses decreases and graduation requirements are lowered.

East Meets West Since 1839: The Meeting of Cultures and Chinese/Chinese-American History through Chinese-American Children's Literature

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The purpose of this paper is to describe what, why and how teachers can help students study the Chinese and Chinese-American cultures and modern history concurrently and profoundly through Chinese-American children's literature. The following four books may be used as teaching materials for Chinese and Chinese-American cultures and history in China and the United States from 1839 to 1997: Laurence Yep's *Dragonwings* (1975) and *Dragon's Gate* (1993), Bette Bao Lord's *In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson* (1984) and Song Nan Zhang's *A Little Tiger in The Chinese Night* (1993). The years 1839 to 1997 are extremely crucial in Chinese and Chinese-American modern history. After the meeting of the East and the West, China's attempt to stop British trade in opium led to the Opium War in 1839. Hong Kong was ceded to British for 155 year until 1997. Since 1839, China suffered from drought, famine, civil rebellions, and wars with Western nations and Japan. At the same time, news of gold in America—most notably of the California Gold Rush in 1849—enticed the villagers mainly of the Kwangtung province in southeastern China to San Francisco to make a better life. The Chinese called San Francisco "the Golden Mountain". In addition, through the study of themes and symbolism in these novels, students will be able to better understand the commonalty and transformations of the beliefs, values, customs, and religion among Chinese and Chinese-Americans.

Theoretical Grounding

Literature has long been seen as a powerful vehicle for fostering cultural awareness and appreciation because it tells the stories of human events and of the human condition, not simply the facts. Literature does more than change minds, it changes people's hearts; and people with changed hearts are people who can move the world (Huck, Helper, & Hickman, 1995; Norton, 1990, 1995; Pepper, 1976; Rasinski & Padak, 1990; Tway, 1989). Historical fiction creates a powerful sense of history in which students can explore the joys, conflicts, and sufferings of those who lived before us (Levstik, 1990; Tunnell & Ammon, 1993). Using historical fiction in the classroom stimulates in-depth investigation of historical time periods and settings. Furthermore, students can identify with main characters as they see the characters take charge of situations in which the students may find themselves. It provides subtle role models for students and gives them opportunities to exercise judgment and decision making. Exploring themes through historical fiction helps students see how a similar theme can be realized in several different time periods.

Autobiography is another extraordinarily powerful genre for the young, not only for the light it sheds on the past but also for examples of human understanding. By reading about men and/or women who exhibited struggle, sorrow, and strength in times of adversity, students develop a keen understanding of how human events results from human action. Strong narratives offer accurate and picturesque details, a sense of period, and a grasp of historical issues, trends, and social types. The students develop social sensitivity to the needs of others and realize that people have similarities as well as differences.

Pepper (1976) in his study of Native American Indian children suggests that teachers teach the true history of the different minority groups and the value of these cultures to all children in order to improve the self-concept of minority students in mainstream settings. Through Chinese-American literature, Chinese-American students are able to learn to identify with people from their own cultural heritage who have created the stories, whether from the past or the present (A. Chi, 1993; M. Chi, 1993). From the past, Chinese-American students discover myths, legends, fables, and folktales that clarify the values and beliefs of the people. They discover the great stories on which whole cultures have been explored. From the present, they discover the threads that weave the past with the present and the themes and values that continue to be important to people. Moreover, they can better understand the social and cultural conflicts that results from differences in beliefs, values, customs, and religion.

The Meeting of Cultures and Chinese/Chinese-American History through Chinese-American Children's Literature

Laurence Yep's historical fiction novels provide powerful examples of Chinese-American children's literature. Two of his novels, *Dragonwings* (1975) and *Dragon's Gate* (1993), portray the Chinese-American's experience of discrimination, violence and injustice against them in the United States. They not only recapture the history, reality and spirit of the Chinese community in the Chinatown of San Francisco and the Sierras from 1867 to 1910, but they also carry subtle messages on issues important to people of dual racial and cultural heritages. Bette Bao Lord's *In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson* (1984) is another good historical fiction novel based on the author's personal life experience as a newcomer to America. It portrays a ten-year-old Chinese girl's struggle to build a life in a new country in Brooklyn, New York in the year of Boar, 1947, right after World War II. America was indeed a land full of wonders, but the little girl did not know any English to make friends. Through Jackie Robinson, a black baseball hero who made a difference in America, she found America a land of opportunity. In addition, Song Nan Zhang's *A Little Tiger in The Chinese Night* (1993) is an exemplary autobiography that tells the story of his life and history from 1945 to the present, mostly in China after Word War II. His autobiography portrays the twists and turns of Chinese contemporary politics--from the Great Leap forward to the Cultural Revolution, and from the relaxing of policies following the death of Mao to the clampdown at Tiananmen Square. His life story provides rare insight into the hopes and disappointments, and dreams and nightmares, that almost every Chinese experienced at that time.

The four novels stated above portray the experience of Chinese Americans and Chinese in the periods of the 1860's, the 1900's, the 1940's, and the 1940's to the present in China and America. They not only stimulate in-depth investigation of historical settings, people and events, but also illuminate processes of historical change and continuity. The journey of dream-making in China and America by the protagonists—Moon Shadow in

Dragonwings, Otter in *Dragon's Gate*, Shirley Temple Wong in *In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson* and Song Nan Zhang in *A Little Tiger in The Chinese Night* reveals the way the Chinese and Chinese-Americans saw themselves, their beliefs and values, their fears, frustrations and dreams, and most importantly, the way they interpreted their own times and cultures. It is this educator's whole-hearted hope that through discussing the four historical fiction/autobiographical novels and related materials, Chinese-American youngsters can develop a keener understanding of why their ancestors left their homeland they called "the Middle Kingdom", to go to the new country, "the Golden Mountain"; and how their ancestors struggled through the social and cultural conflicts of those times. Moreover, it is hoped for young Chinese-Americans to find themselves, to solve their own complex puzzles resulting from their bicultures, and to challenge and act upon their beliefs and values to change the world, East and West.

Chronology in China and America from 1938 to 1997

The following chart, "Chronology in China and America from 1839 to 1997," illustrates Chinese modern history concurrently with Chinese-American history from 1839 to the present, including the U.S. history on the California Gold Rush (1849), the Civil War (1861-1865), the building of the Central Pacific Railroad (1864-1869), the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882), the San Francisco Great Earthquake (1906), World War I (1919-1918), World War II (1939-1945), the Korean War (1950-1953), and the Vietnam War (1965-1975), as well as the Chinese history on the Opium War with Britain (1839-1942), the Taiping Rebellion (1851-1868), the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895), the Boxer Rebellion (1900-1901), the China Revolution (1902-1911), World War I (1914-1918), the May Fourth Movement (1919), the Japanese invasion of Manchuria, (1931), Sino-Japan War/World War II (1936-1945), Liberation (1949), the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), the Tiananmen Square Demonstrations (1989) and the return of Hong Kong to China after 155 years of being ceded to Britain from 1842 to 1997.

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CHRONOLOGY IN CHINA AND AMERICA
1839 - 1997

Dr. Marilyn M.Y. Chi

China

1839 - China's attempt to stop British traffic in opium leaded to war.

1842 - China lost Opium War and conceded privileges to foreigners; a century of gunboat diplomacy ensues. Hong Kong was ceded to Britain for 155 years until 1997.

1851-1868 - Tai p'ing Rebellion in southern half of China.

1858 - Treaty of Tianjin ends second "Opium War" with Great Britain over trade benefits for Europeans.

1859 - Authorities in the Kwangtung Province legalized the recruitment of Chinese laborers.

1860s - Drought, famine and civil unrest in Kwangtung.

1866 - Birth of Sun Yat-sen.

United States

1849 - California Gold Rush. The first Chinese come to California in search of Fortune.

1850 - California became a state. The U.S. Census showed 450 Chinese immigrants in the United States. This number increased to 34,933 in 1860.
The California legislature passed a discriminatory Foreign Miner's Tax, which forced Chinese immigrants to pay a highly disproportionate share of the states taxes.

1852 - Over 18,000 Chinese emigrate to the U.S. Only 17 were women.

1861-1865 - American Civil War

1864 - Central Pacific Railroad recruited Chinese laborers from Canton.

1866 - *Civil Rights Act:* Gave persons of "every race and color" citizenship and all privileges to make contracts, hold property nad testify in court. The law did not apply to Chinese.

China	United States
	1868 - *Burlingame Treaty:* Unrestricted Chinese immigration was allowed primarily to supply cheap labor to build railroads in the U.S.
	1869 - The Transcontinental Railroad was linked at Promontory, Utah. Chinese laborers did most of the work on the Pacific portion of the railroad. One of the earliest anti-Chinese riots occurred in San Fracisco.
1875 - Kwang Hsu becomes Emperor, but the Dowager Empress held the real power in China.	**1873** - A stock market panic on Wall Street threw the U.S. into a depression. California felt the effects. Anti-Chinese riots in Los Angeles (1871) and San Francisco (1877).
	1882 - *Chinese Exclusion Act:* Suspended immigration of Chinese laborers for ten years and prohibited naturalized citizenship for Chinese residents.
1887 - Birth of Chiang Kai-shek.	**1885** - Anti-Chinese sentiment reached a peak at a riot in Wyoming called the Rock Springs Massacre. 28 Chinese were killed. 15 more were wounded and many others were driven from their homes.
	1888 - *Scott Act:* Chinese laborers who have left the U.S. were prohibited from returnig. The act prohibited the immigration of Chinese laborers and permitted only officials, teachers, students, merchants, and travelers from China to enter the United States.
	1892 - *Geary Act:* Extened exclusion for ten more years and removed most of the Chinese immigrants' legal rights.
1893 - Birth of Mao Zedong.	**1893-1897** - The Stock market crashed and another depression enveloped the country.

China	United States
1894-1895 - Japan attacked Manchuria and Taiwan. The China-Japan War yielded disastrous results for China. Sun Yat-sen forced to flee China.	
1895 - Taiwan was ceded to Japan because of the failure of the China-Japan War.	
1898 - Emperor Kwang Hsu instituted sweeping changes with his "hundred Days of Reform." The Dowager Empress staged a coup and Kwang Hsu was imprisoned until his death in 1908. China fell back into conservatism.	
1900-1901 - Boxer Rebellion. The anti-foreign movement culminated in a violent uprising against the Western powers. China is soundly defeated.	**1900s** - Immigration from southern and eastern Europe was at an all-time high.
1902 - Anglo-Japanese treaty recognizes independence of China. Sun Yat-sen announced program of Chinese Democratic Republic.	
1908 - Death of Dowager Empress. Pu Yi becomes the child Emperor of China.	
1911 - Revolution. The Qing Dynasty, the Manchu Empire fell. Sun Yat-sen became Chairman of the Republic of China and Founded the Kuomingtang (Chinese Nationalist Party).	
1914-1918 - World War I	**1914-1918** - World War I: U.S. involvement 1917-1918.
	1916 - Immigration Bill bared adults who cannot read from entering the U.S.
1919 - Student demostrations launched the patriotic May Fourth Movement in favor of science and democracy.	
	1924 - *Immigration Act:* Prohibits alien wives of Chinese residents from entering U.S.
1925 - Death of Sun Yat-sen. Chaing Kai-shek succeeded him as head of the Kuomingtang.	

China	United States
1929 - Chiang Kai-shek became President of China. Fighting continued between the Nationalists and the Communists.	**1929-1939** - The Stock Market crash leaded to the Great Depression.
1931 - Japan invaded Manchuria.	
1932 - Pu Yi, the former child emperor, was installed by the Japanese as head of the puppet government of Manchukuo.	
1936 - Chiang Kai-shek declared war on Japan.	
1938 - The Japanese Army invaded Canton.	
1937-1945 - Sino-Japanese War/ World War II	**1939-1945** - World War II: U.S. involvement from 1941-1945.
	1943 - The Chinese Exclusion Act was repealed. However, only a token quote of 105 Chinese immigrants a year were allowed to enter the United States. Chinese residents permitted to become naturealized citizens.
1945 - Japan surrendered to end World War II. Taiwan was returned back to China after 50 years ceded. Fighting continued between the Communists and the Nationalists in northern China.	**1945** - *War Brides & Fiancées Act:* Contributed to increase the number of Chinese women in the U.S.
1949 - Liberation: The Communists People's Republic is proclaimed by Mao Zedong. The Nationalist government moved to Taiwan.	**1950-1953** - Korean War
	1953 - *Refugee Relief Act:* Admited 2,000 Chinese to U.S.
1959-1961 - Drought and famine in China.	**1959** - Hiram L. Fong, of Hawaii, became the first U.S. senator of Asian ancestry.
	1960-1965 - Vietnam War: U.S. advisory involvement.
	1962 - U.S. admited 15,000 Chinese refugees from Hong Kong.

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China

1966-1976 - The Cultural Revolution.

1971 - People's Republic of China admitted to the United Nations.

1975 - Death of Chiang Kai-shek.

1976 - Death of Mao Zedong.

1979 - Normalization of P.R.C. - U.S.A. relations.

1989 - Tiananmen Square Demonstrations. Students staged massive protest to attain increased democratic freedoms.

1997 - Hong Kong will be returned back to mainland China after 155 years ceded.

United States

1965 - *Immigration & Nationality Act:* Congress passed an Immigration Act that eliminated quotas based on national origins and instituted fair immigration policies: it became effective in 1968. After this act, the number of Chinese immigrating to the United States increased substantially, from 4,769 in 1965 to 22,685 in 1974.

1965-1973 - Vietnam War: U.S. combatted involvement.

1972 - President Richard M. Nixon visited China, which signalled improved relations between the United States and China.

1974 - The U.S. Supreme Court ruled on Lau vs. Nichols that the San Francisco Unified School District was denying Chinese-American students who did not speak English "a meaningful opportunity to participate in the public educational program." This ruling by the high court established a legal basis for bilingual educational programs. Such programs were later established in various parts of the nation.

1979 - U.S. and People's Republic of China announced full diplomatic relations.

1980 - The U.S. Census indicated that the Chinese were one of the largest groups that immigrated to the United States between 1970 and 1980. The percentage of Chinese in the United State increased 88% between 1970 and 1980, compared to 11% for the total poulation and 6% for Whites.

1990 - Chiang-Lin Tien named Chancellor of the University of California, Berkeley.

1993 - Chinese Language was added as one of the foreign language achievement test in SAT II by College Board of Education.

Beyond Drill and Practice: Incorporating Multimedia in Bilingual and English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms

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Many currently available ESL and bilingual software fall into two categories: Drill/practice and tutorial. Majority of the educational multimedia titles are still page turners. They are full of entertaining sound, graphics, and animation but their instructional value is remaining questionable. These software titles did not take the full advantage of the computer. In this article, the author suggests ways to evaluate software effectively, special consideration when selecting software for ESL students, and ways to incorporate multimedia authoring in the ESL classroom.

Software Evaluation Criteria

There are two major ways of incorporating multimedia in bilingual and ESL classrooms: incorporating ready-made commercial titles and create your own titles (multimedia composition). The advantages of using read-made software is that there are many titles available in the market. However, the instructor is limited to the content that is provided by the software. Table 1 provides a list of effective evaluation criteria when evaluating commercial ready-made titles.

Table 1: Criteria for Evaluating Commerical Software

Common criteria for software evaluation are: content, mode of instruction, management, and technical presentation.

1. Content:
    1.1. Is content accurate/factual?
    1.2. Is content interesting for student?
    1.3. Is content educationally important?
    1.4. Is content appropriate for intended users?
    1.5. Is content free of errors in grammar, spelling, usage, etc.?

2. Mode of Instruction:
    2.1. Is new vocabulary is presented appropriately?
    2.2. Are new concepts are presented appropriately?
    2.3. Can students control pace? Does program offer student options to skip already familiar material? Does program offer student options to repeat instruction?

Table 1 (Con'td): Criteria for Evaluating Commerical Software

2.4. Can Students control sequence? Depend upon students' motivation level, prior knowledge about the subject and if they have reasonable good and mature learning strategies, it is recommended that students prefer choices to control the sequence of the instruction.
2.5. Does the program accommodate wide range of ability?
2.6. Is feedback is useful/appropriately stated?
2.7. Does the program reflects knowledge of learning theory?

3. Management:
3.1 Does the program
track and record student information and progress?
allow teacher input of new vocabulary, phrases, sound, volume control, etc.?
allow saving and printing of student work?
3.2 Can student use it by themselves?
3.3 Should it be used "solo" or "collaborative use"?

4. Technical Presentation:
4.1. Are graphics, sound used appropriately in the program?
4.2. Is the program free of bugs?
4.3. Are directions clear?
4.4. Is interface transparent and easy to use?
4.5. Is reading level appropriate for intended users?
4.6. Does the program allow a variety of different kinds of user input- voice recording, typing in words, singing, choosing via the mouse etc.?

Special Consideration for ESL and Bilingual Students

Table 2 provides a list of questions that teachers may use to evaluate the appropriateness of software for ESL and bilingual students:

Table 2: Consideration for ESL and Bilingual Students

1. Is the target language being correctly used?
2. Is the pronunciation appropriate for second language learner? (for example, normal medium reading speed)
3. Is the audio repeat option available to user?
4. Are students allowed to create their own work using the program?
5. Are student learning in the context?

Let's use "Sitting on the Farm" by Sanctuary Woods* as an example for evaluation for ESL and bilingual students. "Sitting on the Farm" is written in English, French and

Spanish for age 7-11 years old children. Highlights of this program include: Children have the opportunity to turn pictures into animation, words into song, and questions into answers by using the program's illustrations writing short stories or fill-in the blank -- then print and color them later. Children can record, play back their pronunciation of a particular word or phrases, and record, play back and sign along with eight different instruments.

In addition to meet most of the software evaluation criteria, "Sitting on the Farm" also offers following features which are helpful for ESL and bilingual students:

- It is rich in visual in order to enable student to learn vocabulary. Students are able to see the object described, they will be able to understand the vocabulary word. The program highlight the words that are being read helps reader follow the story, and eventually recognize print. This is a critical feature for the emergent literacy stage.
- Singing encourages oral language production and allows students to become more familiar with vocabulary.
- The ability to record answers and stories enables students: (1) to create their own stories, and (2) to change them if they wish. This is important for children that are fluent in their primary language. Furthermore, certain cultures have a strong oral tradition that is encouraged by software that allows recording and playing back. Sitting on the farm offers this capability.
- In the beginning, the lesson and vocabulary need to be sheltered for ESL or bilingual students, However, as the lesson progresses the students are free to select the content of the story. Sitting on the farm allows the students to choose different geographical settings for their story. In this manner it expands the vocabulary and allows students to be creative.
- Students can pair up in order to create stories. Cooperative learning ensures students can listen and learn from each other. This leads to our next topic. How can we encourage students to work collaboratively to create their own multimedia programs. What are the benefits and limitations.

Incorporate Multimedia Authoring in the ESL Classroom

If you decide not to be restricted to the content supplied by ready-made titles, creating your own titles is a good way to incorporating multimedia in your classrooms. Since the late 80s, because of the "user friendly" multimedia authoring programs such as HyperCard, HyperStudio, Digital Chisel, and HyperAuthor become available, many of these entry level authoring programs are used for **collaborative multimedia composition.** Students are learning by designing hypermedia/multimedia documents collaboratively. Lehrer (1991, 1993) suggested four primary types of cognitive processes when students compose with hypermedia: planning, transforming, evaluating, and revising. All of these processes are similar to those involved in written composition (Hayes & Flower, 1980) and learning to program in BASIC and Logo. Nevertheless, there are considerable differences as well.

Lehrer (1994) articulated the primary types of cognitive processes in his Cognitive Components of Hypermedia-based Design Table as follows:

Design Component	**Primary Skills Involved**
1. Defining the Nature of the Problem	Question posing
2. Problem Decomposition	Team collaboration
3. Project Management	Task & Role Assignments Developing timelines
4. Finding Information	Document Search techniques Using Keywords in electronic search
5. Developing New Information	Interviewing Developing questions, etc.
6. Selecting Information	Note taking Summarization Data analysis
7. Organizing Information	Use of database tools, Semantic mapping
8. Representing Information	Segmenting video & sound Interleaving media Graphics & video production*
9. Evaluating the Design	Articulating intentions Public speaking Use of display tools
10. Revising the Design	Take design as an object for thought Soliciting peer feedback

Collaborative authorship in hypermedia/multimedia provides students opportunities to sharpen their learning skills, to work as a team, to develop skills to articulate one's own viewpoint via multimedia formats, to be persuasive, and to collectively develop ideas from group dynamics which is not available for individual authorship.

Although one may argue that from working on a group term "paper" project can achieve the same results, high motivation is the major difference between working on "traditional" paper project versus creating multimedia titles. As reported by Ausman (1996), students who usually have a low motivation rate toward academic assignment are highly motivated to create multimedia projects. Ms. Ausman teaches at a middle school in a middle to low economic culturally diverse neighborhood in the Bay Area. She has been using HyperStudio in her science projects, both for her own instructional materials and allowing students to create their own multimedia titles to teach science or science multimedia presentations. Ms. Ausman has been teaching sciences for a number of years. She reported a high degree of enthusiasm and motivation when incorporating multimedia authoring in her classroom versus "traditional" science classrooms. Nevertheless, she does have to invest substantial time in facilitating these multimedia authoring program in the beginning, such as getting the computer lab setup, have enough computer memory to run the program, make the request to purchase a site license or lab pack, make sure the lab is well-maintained, learning the software, learning various ways to incorporate multimedia clips into HyperStudio such as scanning, digital photography, digital recording, digital video editing, and reviewing related laser disks and CD-ROMs to collect ready-made multimedia clips. She also creates multimedia templates to reduce students' learning curve, and grading of multimedia program takes more time than paper reports. However, she said this is definitely worth it. She also observed that the skills that students learned from multimedia composition are transferred to other subject areas (Ausman, 1996).

Students in multimedia composition are challenged to reflect on how to: represent an idea, represent an idea in the most "powerful" way, link different representations of an idea, organize the inter-relationships, and generate hierarchical order among ideas and concepts (Lehrer, 1991, 1993). According to Janvier (1987), multiple and linked mental representation are the cornerstones of understanding. Multimedia composition can provide learner this opportunity.

Students who have completed multimedia composition projects reported that they developed a number of valuable skills such as finding and interpreting information; articulating and communicating knowledge, and using computers as cognitive construction tools. From author's experiences this is particular true with pairing ESL students with native English speakers to work on a class multimedia project. Due to the nature of multimedia composition, ESL students are encouraged to ask questions in English, collaborate with their native speaker counter parts, and be a valuable contributor to the project, American students have the opportunity to reflect on their own communication styles, find out similar idiom expression in other languages, and become more sensitive and skillful in inter-cultural communications. One of author's favorite activity when teaching the multimedia class is to assign an American Idiom group project. The goal is to create an instructional program to teach non-native speakers about popular American Idioms. Idioms are not traditionally taught in conventional English classes. However, we can hardly escape from using idioms in daily conversation. This remains a high interest among ESL students. An advantage of multimedia is that it can be customized to meet the needs of students. With this software package- students are able to understand idioms, which are usually not taught in the classroom.

Other descriptive studies of collaborative multimedia composition reported the following similar results: high levels of student effort and involvement were apparent, students created fairly complex hypermedia document and began to develop critical standards for knowledge (Allen, 1992; Carver, 1991; Lehrer, 1993; Pea, 1991, Scardamalia & Bereuter, 1991). Critical standards for knowledge is difficult to acquire in the tradition classroom. Traditional classrooms are viewed as a place for knowledge transmission. Students are in the receiving roles and are as passive consumers of knowledge. The new metaphor for classroom using multimedia is a place for active and interactive collaborative knowledge construction. The possibility is beyond our imagination. The author is in a process of enhancing a web page regarding incorporating multimedia in the classrooms. Please send your comments to meiyan@aol.com.

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Note: * Sitting on the Farm is published by Sanctuary Woods. 1825 South Grant Street, Suite 410, San Mateo, CA 94402

Cultural Learning/Adaptation and Acculturation in Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract

Learning a language is also learning its culture, too (Bloch, 1996). Cross-cultural awareness plays an important role in the process of cultural learning (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1987). Cultural learning involves understanding the ways of life of another group and cultural adaptation can be the behavior change under a function of environment change. As learning a language is learning a culture, too, to the extent, there is a link between acculturation and second language acquisition. This paper sheds some insights into the complex of language and cultural learning and offers some valuable references to Chinese parents and children as they consider when, where, what, why, and how to acculturate into the traget society, the U.S., where they live and learn its dominant language.

Culture and Cultural Learning/Adaptation

Cohen (1971) explains that a culture is made up of the life systems, objective and specific artifacts, organization of social relations, mode of thought and ideologies, and total range of customary behavior that are transmitted from one generation to another by a social group and that enable it to maintain life in a particular habit. Culture influences human development by ensuring the physical survival of children and by ensuring that children acquire the cultural attributes of their society or population. Thus, culture influences children's attainment of appropriate cognitive, communicative, motivational, and social-emotional or affective attributes, as well as the practical skills that will make them competent adults who will contribute to the survival of their society. (Ogbu, 1981; Damen, 1987)

Cultural identity refers to the relationship between the individual and society. Lum(1982) writes that "identity is a social process in which one balances what s/he thinks oneself to be and what others believe that one to be..." (P. 386). It is the culture or social identity that ties people who share the same culture together. A common cross-cultural observation is that, when people's cultures change, bringing about new culture tasks, people usually learn or develop the new competence required by the cultural tasks that now face them (Ogbu, 1988).

Cultural learning involved understanding the ways of life of another group. Damen (1987) defines that "cultural learning is simply a particular type of human learning related to patterns of human interaction and identification" (P. 216). Adaptation refers to the changes in culture or behavior which are associated with changes in an environment. Thus, cultural adaptation could be the behavior change under a function of environment change. There are different adaptive process of cultural adjustments which take an individual through different phases of changing his/her conditions of life.

Paths of Acculturation

Berry (1980) describes four main modes of acculturation - integration, assimilation, rejection, and deculturation - that individuals might employ in attempting to relate to the dominant society and the traditional culture. These orientations can be identified in terms of dichotomous yes or no answers to two key questions: (1) Are positive relations with the dominant culture to be sought? and (2) Is my cultural identity of value to be retained?

a). Integration: By answering YES to both questions, such individuals want to become part of the large society as well as maintain their group's cultural traditions. Clement (1980) also notes that integration involves individuals acquiring a knowledge and appreciation of the other culture/language while maintaining their own culture/language.

b). Assimilation: By answering YES to the first question and answering NO to the second question, such individuals are demonstrating an assimilation mode and thus want to become part of the majority culture and are willing to abandon their cultural heritage and identity.

c). Rejection: By answering NO to the first question and answering YES to the second question, these individuals do not seek positive relationships with the dominant culture. A rejection mode would be indicated by their intent to withdraw completely from the larger society and maintain their original culture ethnic identity.

d). Deculturation: By answering NO to both questions, such individuals demonstrated a tendency to withdraw from the traditional and the dominant cultures. That is, those individuals are "posited in psychological uncertainty" between two cultures . Deculturalism is akin to the classical situation of marginality and is often accompanied by feelings of alienation and stress due to a loss of identity.

Berry's acculturation model gives some concepts about how acculturation is working on with a person who lives in a country which has a different culture as compared to his/her own. However, age difference might be another variable to a person's accultration.

Cultural Learning/Adaptation and Age Difference

As mentioned above, cultural learning/adaptation is a social and psychological process. Thus, age might play a role in acculturation. Larsen and Smalley (1972) note that as puberty approaches, an individual is concerned with the consolidation of his personality. It apparently becomes more difficult for him to submit to the new norms which a second language/culture requires. In a cross-national study, Lambert and Klineberg (1967) found that the age of ten or so is perhaps the most beneficial development period of introducing cultural difference. They explored that, at this age level, children are more likely to view foreigners as different but at the same time interesting. After the age of ten or before it, children tend to associate "difference with bad".

For immigrants, their degree of culture learning/adaptation is also related to their age of arrival in the target society. Mean, Padilla, and Maldonado (1987) investigated the acculturative stress and specific coping strategies among immigrant and later generation college students. A group of 214 multicultural college students of both sexes were divided into four status groups: early immigration (immigrated before 12 years of age), late immigration (immigrated after 12), second generation immigrants, and third generation immigrants. Findings revealed that late immigration students experienced greater acculturative stress than the other groups. Late immigrants coped with stress more frequently by taking a direct, planned action (individualistic approach), while second- and third- generation groups more often coped by talking to others about the problem (social network). Early immigrants employed both coping strategies. The following section will discuss the impact of acculturation on language learning. First, I will introduce Schumann's (1978a, 1978b) acculturation model and then review some studies which apply this model to language learning.

Acculturation and Language Learning

Schumann in 1978 proposed an acculturation model in which two types of variables - **social and affective** - are considered as the major factors related to 'natural' second language acquisition. The social variables refer to relations between social groups, including social dominance, patterns (dominance vs subordination vs non-dominance), integration strategies (assimilation vs adaptation vs preservation), enclosure, cohesiveness, size, congruence, attitude, and the intended length of residence in the target society. The affective variables refers to individuals, including language shock, culture shock, ego-permeability, and the learners' motivation.

As learning a language is learning a culture, to the extent there is a link between acculturation and SLA. Schumann (1978a, 1978b) proposed that any learner can be placed on a continuum that ranges from social and psychological distance, to social and psychological proximity with speakers of the target language (TL). The learner will acquire the second language (L2) only to the degree that he acculturates. According to Schumann's acculturation model, the degree of acculturation correlates to the proficiency of language learning. A variety of research supports or negates the relationship between acculturation and second language acquisition (SLA).

Gardner, Moorcroft, and Metford's (1989) study investigated the relationship of a series of attitude, motivation, and aptitude variables to the acquisition and retention of French language skills. Subjects were drawn from a sample of 105 students from a French program in Quebec to complete the questionnaires. The results suggest that the roles played by language aptitude and attitudinal/motivational variables related to the social cultural conditions (e.g. self-confidence) under which language learning takes place.

However, some study results do not account for Schumann's acculturation model. Oller et al.(1977) found that the learners in this study did better on the ESL proficiency test if they gave themselves and Mexicans a high rating. They appeared to be anti-integratively motivated towards the American majority. If subjects rated Americans as high, they did more poorly on the ESL test. As they became more proficient in ESL , they appeared to become more negative toward Americans.

Young and Gardner (1990) investigated 124 members of a Chinese community who were asked to complete a questionnaire assessing various types of attitudes and aspects of proficiency in English. A factor analysis of the relationships among these variables yielded five factors: linguistic identification, identification with the mother community, fear of assimilation, maintenance of the Chinese culture, and desire to learn English. They found that clear cause-effect statements can't be made from a factor analysis of correlations among the various measures. For example, they demonstrated that while proficiency is closely linked with a sense of identity, identification with the L2 community does not necessarily imply assimilation. On the contrary, in this study individuals who identified strongly with the Canadian community and were proficient in English while doubting their Chinese skills are comfortable with their situations. Furthermore, those who identified with the Canadian community, were not necessarily good or poor at English. Some of the results do not correspond to what might be expected considering the literature on acculturation. The results showed that acculturation is an important but not necessarily a major causal factor in classroom SLA.

Age Differences in SLA and Acculturation

The critical period hypothesis (CPH) as proposed by Lenneberg (1967) holds that primary language acquisition must occur during a critical period at about the age of puberty with the establishment of cerebral lateralization of function. However, there is some counter-evidence to the "younger equals better" and "older equals faster" positions. Tremaine (1975) found that French aural comprehension among early total immersion pupils correlated with cognitive maturity. Horwitz (1983) found that in a sample of adolescents and young adults L2 communicative competence correlated with social-cognitive maturity as reflected in conceptual level. The research evidence does not consistently support the hypothesis that younger L2 learners are globally more affected and successful than older learners, nor are older learners more successful than younger learners. At this point regarding the critical period hypothesis with Schumann's acculturation model, some personal affective variables and social variables might account for children's or adults' acculturation in second language acquisition.

Generally, it is claimed that in children, empathy, motivation, and attitudes are favorably tuned neutral, so that when explored to the TL, the child's cognitive processes will function to produce language learning. In adults, the development of firm ego boundaries, attitudes, and motivation orientations are concomitant with social and psychological maturations. A psychological distance from TL might inhibit adults from operating TL as they are exposed to it. A number of linguists have noted that when families move to a new dialect area, the children typically learn the dialect of their peers rather that of their parents. Related to personal affective factors, a child L2 learner has less difficulty that an adult because he feels more free to make mistakes. In addition, as mentioned in Section One that learners' age of arrival in the target culture correlates to their cultural learning. Learners' age of arrival in the TL culture might also affect their acculturation in SLA.

Conclusion

Schumann's (1978) acculturation model proposes that social and psychological distances both have causal impact on second language acquisition. From the research evidence, we are not quite sure whether acculturation is, in fact, the causal variable in SLA. Nevertheless, from our discussion of cultural learning and acculturation, we definitely can claim that language learning embraces cultural learning. Learning a second language is learning a second culture, too. In dealing with learning a language and its culture, the social, psychological and affective variables cannot be ignored. Learners' attitudes and motivations towards second languages and cultures learning should also be considered (Lado, 1988).

For Chinese people no matter they are the later generations of the early immigrants or the recently arriving immigrants, since they live in the U.S., an Engish-speaking country, and learn its language, English, as a second language, the question of acculturation exists. Many Chinese parents want their children to speak English well and at the same time to keep their own Chinese learning and Chinese culture. The above research studies and discussion show us that there are different paths of acculturation. We can assume that the patterns and rules of a culture are part of the experience, thought, and expectations of the members of that culture. Parents and children, students and teachers, men and women, majority and minority, employee and employers play different roles and have different expectations within a culture because of those different roles. A person's external or internal, socail or psychological variables might all account for his/her cultural learning/adaptation. Wish this paper can offer some suggestions and directions to the Chinese Americans in the aspect of second language learning and acculturation as they stay in the U.S. and learn its language and culture.

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Investigating Mathematics Classroom Behaviors of Asian American Students

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Numerous educational studies have documented Asian American students' higher achievement in mathematics as compared to students from other ethnic groups (D'Ailly, 1992; Sue & Okazaki, 1990). Some of these studies attributed Asian American students' high achievement to culture and heritage, including their family life style, home language, and the value that these students shared with their parents (Karkhanis & Tsai, 1988; Kennedy & Park, 1994; Schneider & Lee; 1990). Some examined the learning environments of Asian American students (Huang, 1995; Huang & Waxman, 1996). Others explored the relationship of these students' academic success to gender, socio-economic status and/or other factors (Peng, Owings, & Fetters, 1984). One concern of research on Asian American students, however, is that it has seldom employed large-scale classroom observation to provide an objective account of what Asian American students actually do in their classrooms in naturalistic settings.

In the last three decades, classroom observation research has evolved as an important research paradigm for the improvement of mathematics education (Kulm, 1993; Pechman, 1991). A great deal of research has used systematic classroom observation techniques in order to investigate effective teaching and learning at the elementary, middle, and high school levels (Anderson & Burns, 1989; Brophy & Good, 1986; Stallings & Mohlman, 1988; Waxman, 1995). Medlay (1982) defines systematic classroom observation as a "scheme that specifies both the events that the observer is to record and the procedure to be used in recording them (p. 1982)." Among the various techniques, the most widely used observation procedure for educational research is based on interactive coding systems that allow the observer to record specific and easy identifiable behaviors that students and teachers do during a given time interval (Stodolsky, 1990).

Many of the observational research studies have consistently found that a number of classroom behaviors are significantly related to students' academic achievement (Brophy & Good, 1986; Walberg, 1991; Walker de Felix, Waxman, Paige, & Huang, 1993). Classroom behaviors such as the amount of time students spend on (completing), small group instruction, and interaction with teachers have been found to be predictors of learning outcomes in mathematics (Hart, 1990). Some of the strengths of conducting classroom observation research with Asian American students are that they (a) enable professional assessment of classroom processes that lead to improved understanding and better models for teaching (Good & Biddle, 1988; Pechman, 1991), (b) permit investigation of instructional inequities for different groups of students in order to implement effective practices that reduce achievement gaps (Hart, 1990, Ramey, 1992), and (c) can be used to stimulate and plan changes as well as to verify that the changes have occurred (Anderson & Burns, 1989). Most of all, they contribute to a more comprehensive body of knowledge about Asian American education by developing an empirical profile of this group of students' classroom interaction in mathematics. Nonetheless, very few studies have focused on Asian American students when using systematic classroom observation techniques to examine instructional practices and student behaviors in secondary schools. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate Asian American middle school students' classroom behaviors in mathematics. More specifically, this study examines (a) Asian American students' interactions with teachers, classroom settings, activities, and manners in mathematics classes, and (b) whether there are significant differences of these students' classroom behaviors between boys and girls, and between different grade levels.

Methods

Subjects

This study was conducted in a multi-cultural school district located in the vicinity of a major metropolitan city in the southern United States. The school district was selected because of its relatively large enrollment of Asian American students. About 23% of the students in the school district were Asian American, 32% of them were white, 26% were black, and 20% were Hispanic. A total of 463 middle school Asian American students were observed during their regular mathematics classes. The gender distribution among these students was nearly equal: 49.7% boys and 50.3% girls. About 39% of the students in the study were sixth graders, 29% were seventh graders, and 32% were eighth graders. Nearly 48% of them were born in the United States, 13.5% in Vietnam, 11% in Pakistan, 6.5% in India, 5.5% in Philippine, 5% in China, 2% in Taiwan, and the rests' 14.5% in Southeast Asian and other countries. About 75% of them spoke a language other than English before they started schools. A majority of the students came from lower to upper middle income families. They scored higher than students from other ethnic groups on state-wide standardized achievement tests in mathematics and on the district-administered problem solving tests.

Instruments

The instrument used in the present study was the Classroom Observation Schedule (COS) (Waxman, Wang, Lindvall, & Anderson, 1988). It is a systematic observation schedule designed to document observed student behaviors in the context of ongoing classroom instructional-learning processes. Individual students are observed with reference to (a) their interactions with teachers and/or peers and the purpose of such interactions, (b) the settings in which observed behaviors occur, (c) the types of materials with which they are working, and (d) the specific types of activities in which they engage. The COS has been found to be reliable and valid in previous studies, and in the present study the inter-rater reliability (Cohen's Kappa) was .98.

Procedures

Trained research staff observed mathematics classes in the Fall and Spring semesters. Teachers and students were notified of the weeks when observers would be in their school, but they were not aware of the specific day nor period the observer would be in their classroom. Arrangements were made to observe regular classroom instruction and classes devoted to special activities (e. g., standardized tests, laboratory, etc.) were avoided.

A stratified sampling technique was used to include an equal number of boys and girls in the sample. Approximately two Asian American students were observed from each class. Each student was observed for 10 intervals (each interval was 30 seconds) during the 45 minute data collection period.

Descriptive statistics were used to report the mean percentage of time a specific behavior was observed during a data collection period. A series of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were performed to examine if there were significant differences in classroom behaviors by students' gender and grade level.

Results

The results are presented in the mean percentage of time the specific behavior was observed. In the middle school mathematics classes, the predominant setting was whole-class instruction, accounting for 63% of the time being observed, followed by individual or independent work (31%). The students interacted with their teachers about 52% of the time for instructional purposes and nearly 8% of the time for managerial purposes. They interacted with other students about 8% of the time. The most prevalent activity they were observed was watching and listening, accounting for 43% of the time being observed. It is followed by working on written assignment, talking, and taking quizzes. They were on task about 84% of the time observed, distracted about 7% of the time, and disruptive about 2% of the time. (See Table 1)

The MANOVA results revealed a significant effect by grade on the level of interaction (df (10, 906), F=3.19, p<.001) and student classroom manner (df(10, 906), F=4.55, p<.001). Eighth grade students spent more time interacting with teachers instructionally (F=5.01, p<.01)and less time managerially (F=7.04, p<.01)than sixth and seventh grade students. Sixth and seventh grade students were found to be more on task (F=6.23, p<.01)and less disruptive (F=12.94, p<.001)than eighth grade students. Eighth grade students were found to be more frequently distracted (F=4.45, p<.05)and less frequently waiting (F=3.29, p<.05)for teacher's help than sixth grade students. No significant difference in behaviors was found between boys and girls. Nor was there a significant interaction effect of gender and grade on classroom behaviors. (See Table 2)

Discussion

The results the present study reveal that overall, Asian American students in these middle school mathematics classes were generally engaged in teacher-directed instruction. The prevailing classroom setting was whole group instruction, whereas paired, small or medium-sized groups were seldom utilized. This finding is consistent with Good's research (1990a, 1990b) that assessed teacher belief and practices of small-group mathematics instruction and found that only 5% of the teachers used two or more groups in which students were encouraged to work cooperatively. Contrary to the common perception that Asian American students are passive and quiet in class, these students spent slightly over half of the time interacting with their teachers for instructional purposes. This is about the same level as students from other ethnic groups (Huang, 1993). As for types of activities, Asian American students engaged a large proportion of time among watching, listening, or working on written assignments, and spent less time doing learning games, working on manipulative materials, tutoring, or presenting.

The overall 84 percentage of time that students were found to be on task was relatively low, compared with findings from other similar studies. This is especially troublesome given that the mathematics achievement of the targeted population was above the local and national averages. However, a prior study compared the targeted population with their classmates of other ethnicities indicated that Asian American students were more on task and less distracted than their classmates from other ethnic groups (Huang, 1993). This might be one explanation as to why Asian American students generally have higher mathematics achievement than their counterparts.

The results of this study also indicate that there were grade-related differences in Asian American students' classroom interaction and manner in mathematics. The higher the grade level, the more instructional interaction and disruptive behaviors were observed. Plausible explanations for the differences may be that there were differences in variables such as mathematics content, teachers' expertise, and student and teacher attitudes. Mathematics content increases in difficulty and complexity as the grade level moves up. Students in upper grades need to interact more instructionally with teachers, yet their mathematics scores and course grades generally decline. They tend to lose interest and behave disruptively. This is consistent to Weishew and Peng's (1993) finding that lower achievement was associated with greater classroom misbehavior.

No significant differences were found in classroom setting or types of activities by grade. In other words, mathematics teachers at the sixth, seventh, and eighth grade levels used mainly the whole class setting for classroom instruction. Students at all the three grade levels engaged mostly in activities like watching, listening, or working on written assignments. There were no significant differences between boys and girls in mathematics classroom behaviors among these Asian American students either. A comparison of mathematics achievement based on course grades and standardized test scores further showed that there was no significant difference between these boys and girls. Future research needs to examine Asian American students' classroom behaviors (a) in other subject areas such as reading, science, and social science and (b)at elementary and high school levels to determine whether this classroom behavior pattern sustains across different subject areas and school levels.

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Table 1 Asian American Students' Classroom Behaviors in Mathematics

Variables	All Students Observed (n=463)	
	M	SD
Interaction		
A) No interaction/Independence	30.03	30.03
B) Interaction with teacher-instructional	51.68	31.49
C) Interaction with teacher-managerial	8.74	11.92
D) Interaction with other-personal	0.13	1.29
E) Interaction with students	8.27	16.21
F) Interaction with others	1.15	8.79
Setting		
A) Whole Class	62.73	33.05
B) Individual	31.58	32.74
C) Paired	1.84	7.89
D) Small Group	2.49	12.06
C) Others	0.92	5.94
Activity type		
A) Working on written assignments	24.55	22.03
B) Taking quizzes, tests	7.45	21.66
C) Interacting/talking	9.81	13.21
D) Watching or listening	43.21	25.83
E) Reading	1.67	5.84
F) Getting/returning materials	3.99	6.76
G) Doing activities/learning games	1.55	6.10
H) Coloring, drawing, painting, etc.	0.85	4.73
I) Working with manipulative materials/equip.	1.07	5.09
J) Presenting/acting	0.12	1.02
K) Tutoring peers	0.18	1.62
L) No activities	3.00	9.14
M) Others	2.56	9.39
Manner		
A) On task	84.31	23.02
B) Preparation (getting materials, etc.)	3.13	8.25
C) Waiting for teacher's help	1.76	5.46
D) Distracted	7.62	15.80
E) Disruptive	1.89	7.68

Table 2. Comparison of Students' Classroom Behaviors by Grade

Variables	MANOVA		6th Grade (n=181)		7th Grade (n=135)		8th Grade (n=147)		ANOVA
	df	F	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Interaction	10,906	3.19***							
A) No interaction/independence			33.97	31.07	31.44	29.81	23.86	28.09	4.90**
B) With teacher-instruction			47.25	30.49	50.69	30.21	58.03	32.99	5.01**
C) With teacher-managerial			9.49	13.16	10.88	12.19	5.85	9.28	7.04**
D) With other-personal			0.14	1.31	0.09	1.08	0.17	1.45	0.12
E) With students			8.25	16.24	6.45	13.27	9.96	18.40	1.65
F) With others			0.90	6.85	0.44	3.05	2.13	13.28	1.44
Setting	10,906	1.18							
A) Whole Class			61.32	32.38	60.75	34.11	66.30	32.80	
B) Individual			32.18	32.30	34.90	33.83	27.81	32.10	
C) Paired			2.10	8.44	2.14	9.63	1.24	4.84	
D) Small Group			3.57	15.59	1.66	9.62	1.94	8.57	
C) Others			0.83	6.80	0.55	3.69	2.71	6.51	
Activity Type@	24,892	1.26							
A) Working on written assignmts.			25.34	21.97	26.91	22.74	21.42	21.22	
B) Taking quizzes, tests			7.67	22.75	6.30	18.41	8.22	23.10	
C) Interacting/talking			8.51	10.13	9.94	13.95	11.29	15.59	
D) Watching or listening			43.68	25.51	40.77	23.13	44.87	28.43	
E) Reading			1.16	5.13	1.68	4.93	2.27	7.22	
F) Getting/returning materials			4.45	7.05	4.26	6.96	3.16	6.15	
G) Doing activities/ games			1.86	6.73	2.11	7.24	0.64	3.55	
H) Coloring, drawing, painting			0.68	3.67	1.22	5.15	0.73	5.46	
I) Working with manipulat. mats.			0.88	4.10	1.59	6.12	0.83	5.16	
J) Presenting/acting			0.09	0.84	0.23	1.47	0.07	0.82	
K) Tutoring peers			0.25	1.93	0.19	1.60	0.10	1.18	
L) No activities			2.41	7.88	2.71	9.23	3.98	10.40	
M) Others			3.03	10.83	2.10	7.19	2.41	9.30	
Manner	10,906	4.55***							
A) On task			87.64	17.19	85.67	21.77	78.95	28.87	6.23**
B) Preparation (getting matrs,etc.)			4.07	10.38	2.69	6.55	2.38	6.44	1.91
C) Waiting for teacher's help			2.49	6.54	1.67	5.25	0.94	3.90	3.29*
D) Distracted			5.30	12.47	7.56	14.96	10.53	19.45	4.45*
E) Disruptive			0.50	2.40	0.93	3.93	4.48	12.46	12.94***

* $p<.05$. ** $p<.01$. *** $p<.001$.

@ Note: More than one activity may be coded during one observation.

The Impact of Self-Efficacy and Task Value on Taiwanese College Students' Effort and Achievement

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Abstract

Research in general shows that motivational beliefs have important effects on students' effort and academic achievement. The difference between trait and state also has been identified by many researchers. The study attempted to examine the impact of motivational beliefs, such as task value and self-efficacy, on Taiwanese college students' effort and academic performance. The effects of self-efficacy and effort in trait and state dimensions were also investigated. 263 Taiwanese college students participated in this study. The result showed that task value and trait self-efficacy did influence students' academic performance through the mediation of trait effort. However, the state effort failed to prove relationship to students' academic achievement. In addition, the result showed that the trait self-efficacy and effort had direct effects on state self-efficacy and effort

Introduction

Research indicates that motivational-beliefs play a very important role in students' self-regulation and academic achievement (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). According to Pintrich and De Groot (1990), knowledge of metacognitive strategies is usually not enough to promote academic achievement. Students have to be motivated to regulate their effort and use strategies in order to attain their achievement. In other words, students who are motivated are more likely to invest more effort during instruction, such as organizing and rehearsing information, monitoring level of understanding, and relating new material to prior knowledge (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). On the other hand, without effort investment, students are less likely to attain achievement. Thus, both motivational beliefs and effort management are critical for students' achievement.

The motivational beliefs in this study include task value and self-efficacy. Task value refers to students' perception of the course material in terms of their beliefs about the importance and interest of the content of the course. Research indicates that task value was positively correlated with students' academic achievement (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992). In addition, students who reported higher levels of interest and value were more likely to report that they were thinking critically about the course material and using more strategies to regulate their cognition and their effort (Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992).

Self-efficacy is defined as the belief that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce a particular outcome in a specific domain (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy usually includes judgment about one's ability to master a task and one's confidence in one's skills to perform that task (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). According to Bandura (1982), self-efficacy influences choice of activity, effort, persistence and task accomplishment. Students with higher sense of self-efficacy are more likely to choose difficult tasks, invest greater effort, persist longer on tasks than students who have a low sense of efficacy for tasks (Schunk, 1989). The higher the perceived self-efficacy, the greater the sustained motivation in the activities and achievement. Therefore, self-efficacy should have effects on both effort and achievement on a variety of tasks.

. In general, effort and ability were found to be the most critical causes of academic success or failure. According to Weiner's attribution theory (1986), effort is perceived as an unstable and controllable cause for success and failure. On the other hand, ability is viewed as a stable but uncontrollable cause for performance. With this respect, students are more likely to improve their performance through effort instead of ability, because they may feel more control over their effort rather than ability. Accordingly, it is better to motivate students to expand effort to enhance their achievement rather than change their ability to do so. In addition, effort was found to be an important manner of self-control in terms of persisting in the face of difficult or boring tasks (Corno, 1986). Thus, how to motivate students to invest effort become critical to school teachers and educators.

Moreover, the difference between state and trait has been identified. Traits usually are viewed as stable attributes and personal causality. On the other hand, states are defined as situational causality. Research showed that state effort and state self-efficacy have positive relationships with math achievement (O'Neil, 1992; Malpass, 1994). Such results suggested that the more effort and self-efficacy students have while taking a test, the higher score they can attain.

This study attempted to investigate the effect of task value, self-efficacy and effort on students' achievement. In addition, since research showed that effort was a critical factor determining students' academic achievement, this study also tries to examine the impact of motivational beliefs such as task value as well as self-efficacy on effort expanded. In this study, effort and self-efficacy are classified into state and trait dimensions. Trait self-efficacy and effort refer to students' efficacy beliefs and effort expanded on the task during the semester. State self-efficacy and effort can be defined in terms of the efficacy beliefs and effort students hold when taking exams. The effects of effort and self-efficacy of these two dimensions on achievement were examined. In addition, according to Pintrich and Schunk (1996), most test anxiety models predict that people who are high in trait test anxiety will be more anxious in types of anxiety-arousing situations. In short, trait test anxiety have direct impacts on state test anxiety. Accordingly, it is reasonable to assume that students with more trait self-efficacy and effort on the task during this semester may influence their state self-efficacy and effort when taking exams. Thus, the relationship between trait and state dimensions were also investigated.

Research Hypothesis

The proposed model shown on Figure 1 was based on the rational theoretical background mentioned above.

H1: Students' task values have positive effects on their invested effort and academic achievement.

H2: Trait self-efficacy impacts on students' trait effort and academic achievement.

H3: Students' trait self-efficacy influences their state self-efficacy.

H4: State self-efficacy positively affects students' state effort and academic achievement

H5: The more effort (both state and trait) that students invest on the task, the better academic achievement students have.

H6: Students' trait effort influences their state effort.

Methodology

Instruments:

This questionnaire used 5-point Liker scales, including the scales of task value, trait self-efficacy, state self-efficacy, trait effort and state effort. Basically, the scales of this questionnaire were developed by other researchers. Some items were modified for use in this study. The scales of task value and trait self-efficacy were chosen from Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & Mckeachie, 1993). In addition, the scales of state self-efficacy and state effort were derived from Malpass' dissertation (1994). Moreover, for the scale of trait effort, one item was designed by the author and four items were selected from O'Neil and Snow's study. Since the present study was conducted with college students in Taiwan, this questionnaire was translated into Chinese. In order to ensure that the Chinese version of the scale tested the same construct as the original English version did, the technique of back translation by three bilinguals was employed. Appendix A and B present the original English version of this questionnaire.

Subject:

263 college students in Taiwan participated in this study. These students were selected from Tamkang University located in the city of Taipei, Taiwan. Tamkang University is a private university offering all areas of a bachelor degree program. The selected subjects from Tamkang University were enrolled in the course "Introduction to Psychology".

Procedure: The questionnaire were divided into two parts. The first part of the questionnaire, including the scales of task value, trait self-efficacy as well as trait effort, were employed at the last class of the chosen course. The second part of questionnaire which consisted of state self-efficacy and state effort, was used when students took their final examination of the selected course of this study. Subjects were asked to fill out the first part of questionnaire at the last class of that course, and answered the second part of questionnaire immediately after their final examination of that course . The final exam of the course "Introduction to Psychology" consisted of multiple choice and essay questions. The testing time for this exam was 100 minutes.

Methodology:

This study was nonexperimental. An item analysis was conducted to determine the item reliability. Items which lack discriminate validity were discarded. In addition, both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were executed to examine the measurement part of the five latent variables mentioned in the present study. The confirmatory factor analys is examined the adequacy of the hypothesized factor loadings, the degree of model fit, and the latent factor intercorrelations. Moreover, in order to test the causal relationships among the variables in the proposed theoretical model (see Figure 1), structural equation modeling using the computer program EQS (Bentler, 1985) were performed. The reason structural equation modeling was used instead of path analysis is because structural equation modeling can examine multivariate relationships simultaneously and help correct measurement errors that path analysis does not take into account.

Results

Reliability and item analysis

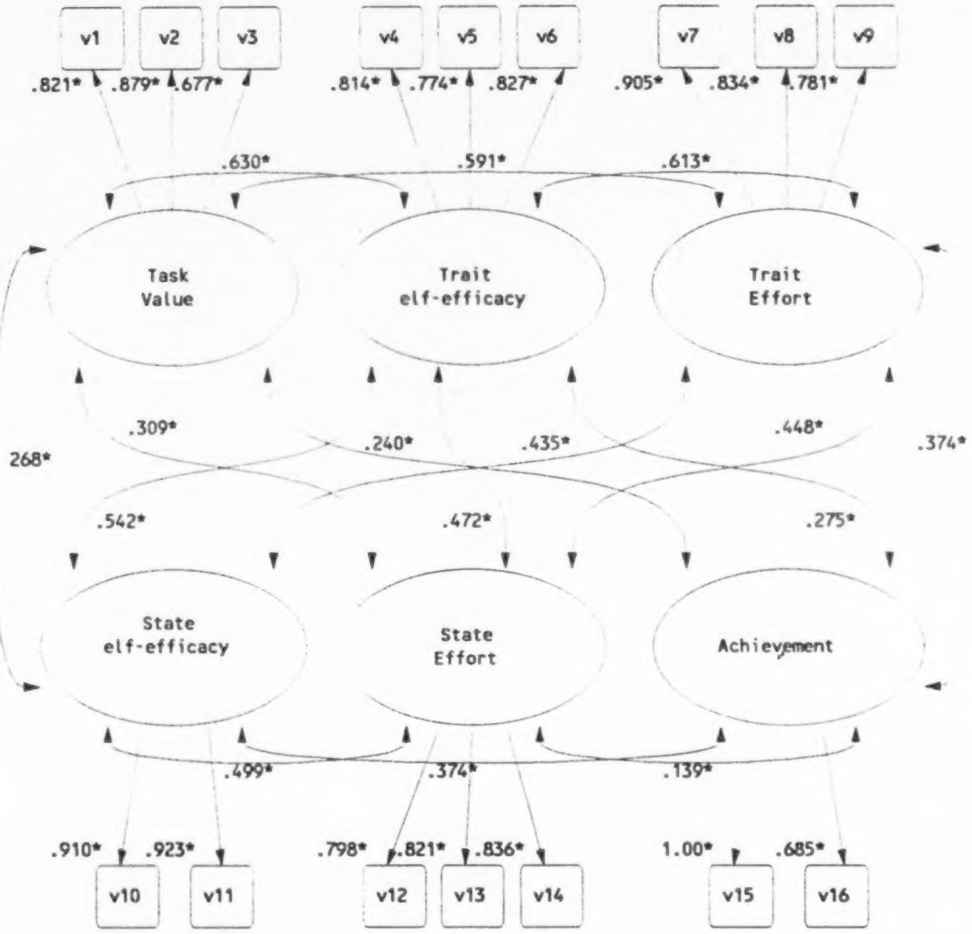
A test of internal consistency (Cronbach's α) of sets of questionnaire items hypothesized to contain five factors was performed, each set corresponding to a proposed factor. An alpha of .89 was obtained for items designed for trait effort. Items of State Self-efficacy proved to be very reliable with an alpha of .84. Items presenting Trait Self-efficacy obtained .84, too. An alpha of .82 was obtained for items loading on the factor labeled "State Effort". Items of Task Value were also reliable with an alpha of .79.

To determine validity, a principle component analysis was conducted. The PCA extracted the above mentioned five factors with loadings ranging from .83 to .58 for "Trait Effort," .85 to .53 for " Treat Self-Efficacy," .86 to .74 for "State Effort," .82 to .43 for "Task Value" and .80 to .37 for "State Self-Efficacy". There was only one item with an loading lower than the thumb of rule of .40. Item 21 supposed to present state self-efficacy loaded on state effort with .37, which was lower than .40. In addition, item 21 also had loadings on state self-efficacy with .34 and on task value with .31. Thus, this item did not have discriminate validity and as a result it was thrown out of the data analysis.

Test of the measurement model.

The purpose of testing the measurement model prior to testing the full structural model is to examine how well the measures jointly serve as measurement instruments for the latent variables in the structural model. Confirmatory factor an alysis is capable for accomplishing this task. The result of the confirmatory factor analysis showed that each indicator significantly loaded on its assigned construct, $p < .05$ (see Figure 2). The factor loadings were all over .68. The goodness-of-fit test produced a chi-square value of 144.45 with 89 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$), the chi-square likelihood ratio of 1.62 (χ➼/ df), the Bentler-Bonett Non-normed fit index was .95, and the comparative fit index was .96. Due to the significance of the chi-square, this model was rejected by the data. However, the chi-square likelihood ratio of 1.62 was less than the 3.00 limit set by Carmines and McIver (1981) and two fit indexes were both over .90, which meant that this model was supported by the samples. The reason why the result of chi-square differ from the chi-square likelihood ratio and two fit indexes is because the chi-square is biased against large sample size. The correlations between factors were all smaller than .90, which indicated this measure model had discriminate validity among constructs.

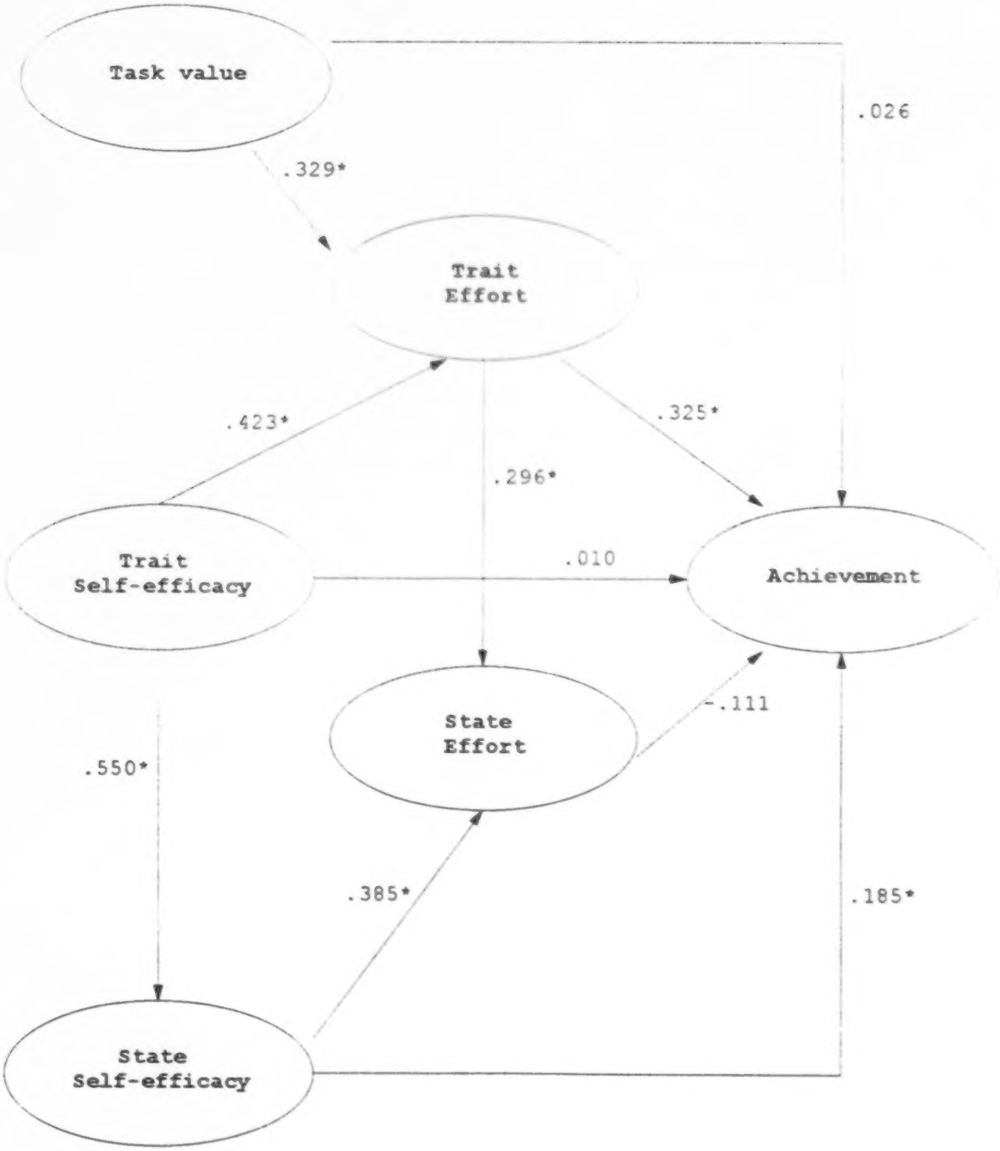
Figure 1: Propose Model


v1
v2
v3
v4
v5
v6
v7
v8
v9
.821*
.879*
.677*
.814*
.774*
.827*
.905*
.834*
.781*
.630*
.591*
.613*
Task Value
Trait elf-efficacy
Trait Effort
.309*
.240*
.435*
.448*
.374*
268*
.542*
.472*
.275*
State elf-efficacy
State Effort
Achievement
.499*
.374*
.139*
.910*
.923*
.798*
.821*
.836*
1.00*
.685*
v10
v11
v12
v13
v14
v15
v16

Test of the proposed model

The proposed model was rejected by chi-square value of 154.63 with 93 degrees of freedom, but it supported by the chi-square likelihood ratio of 1.66 as well as Bentler-Bonett Nonnormed fit index with .95 and comparative fit index with .96 (Bentler, 1995; Newcomb, 1994). Again, the inconsistency of the good-of-fit of chi-square and the chi-square likelihood ratio as well as two fit indexes is because the chi-square is biased against the large sample size. The results of the structural equation modeling were shown in Figure 3. Seven out of the ten path were significant at .05 level. The remaining three paths were rejected. Each path was reported as follows:

Figure 2: The Measurement Model


Task value
.026
.329*
Trait Effort
.423*
.325*
.296*
Trait Self-efficacy
.010
Achievement
State Effort
-.111
.550*
.385*
.185*
State Self-efficacy

Hypothesis 1: Students' task value has positive effects on their invested (trait) effort and achievement.

The task value was found to positively influence students' invested effort ($\beta=.33$, $t=4.17$, $p<.05$). That is, the more the value they placed on this task, the more the effort they invested on this task. In addition, although task value did not directly impact on students' academic achievement, it had significantly indirect effects on achievement through effort. In other word, students who valued the task more were more likely to expand more effort, which strongly influenced their achievement.

Hypothesis 2: Students with higher trait self-efficacy tend to have more trait effort and better achievement.

The result showed that trait self-efficacy had a strong effect on students' trait effort ($\beta=.423$, $t=.53$, $p< .05$). The more they felt capable about this task during that semester, the more effort they spent on this task. In addition, trait self-efficacy did not directly relate to students' achievement, but it did have an indirect effect on students' achievement through effort.

Hypothesis 3: Students' trait self-efficacy positively influence their state self-efficacy.

Student's trait self-efficacy was found to strongly influence their state self-efficacy ($\beta=.55$, $t=8.03$; $p< .05$). Students who felt more capable to perform the skill of the task during the semester were more likely to believe that they could do well when taking the final exam.

Hypothesis 4: The state self-efficacy have positive effects on students' state effort and achievement.

The result indicated that students' trait self-efficacy had positive impacts on their state effort ($\beta=.39$, $t=5.59$, $P< .05$). Students who believed that they can perform well while taking exams invested more effort on the exam. In addition, students' state self-efficacy was found to directly relate to their achievement ($\beta= .19$, $t=2.24$; $p< .05$). However, the state self-efficacy did not have indirect effects on achievement through state effort, since there was no significant relations between state effort and achievement (see next session).

Hypothesis 5: The more the efforts (both trait and state) students invested, the better the students' achievement.

Students' trait effort did positively influence their achievement ($\beta= .325$, $t=3.45$, $p< .05$). That is, the more effort students expanded on the task during the semester, the better achievement of the task they received. However, the state effort was found to negatively relate to students' achievement with an insignificant index ($\beta=-.11$, $t=- .146$, $p< .05$).

Hypothesis 6: Students with high trait effort tend to have high state effort.

The result supported that the more the effort students invested on the task during the semester, the more the effort they expanded when taking the exam ($\beta=.30$, $t=4.37$, $p< .05$).

Conclusion and Discussion

The EQS analysis confirmed that motivational beliefs, such as task value and self-efficacy, did have effects on students' effort and achievement. The results showed that students with higher task value and trait self-efficacy for the task during the semester placed more effort on the task and thus enhanced their achievement. In other words, task value and trait self-efficacy have indirect effects on achievement through the mediation of effort. The result was consistent with Pintrich and Schrauben's (1992) research, which indicated that motivational beliefs may not directly affect students' academic performance but can lead them to increased cognitive engagement in the task, which have direct effects on academic performance.

In addition, research indicated that the effect of task value was not so strong as efficacy beliefs on academic performance (Pintrich & Garcia, 1991; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1991). For example, Wigfield and Eccles (1992) found that task values might be more important for choice behavior, such as enrolling in course, but once in the course, values were not as important for actual performance as were expectancy beliefs However, there is no such difference between the task value and efficacy beliefs on achievement in this study.

Besides task value, self-efficacy was found to influence effort significantly. Students with high efficacy beliefs were more likely to invest effort in the face of difficult tasks. Schunk (1991) indicated that self-efficacy has been related to the quantity of effort such as time spent and the persistency at the task. In addition to quantity of effort, self-efficacy was also found to relate to quality of effort, which in terms of the use of deeper processing strategies and general cognitive engagement of learning (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Students with strong efficacy beliefs were more likely to be cognitively engaged in learning the course material compared to those low in self-efficacy (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). Although research showed that efficacy beliefs were good predictors of academic performance, without the mediation of effort, efficacy beliefs might only have minimal effect on academic achievement. Thus, self-efficacy serves as a good predictor of academic achievement mainly through its strong impact on effort exertion.

In addition, trait effort has been found to positively affect students' achievement. That is, students who invested more effort on this task during the semester were more likely to have better academic performance. According to Chen and Stevenson (1995), Asian students are more likely to believe that the road to academic success is through effort. Thus, when students were motivated, they were more likely to exert effort in order to attain their academic success.

With respect to the state dimension, the state effort in this study was failed to prove to have a positive impact on students' achievement. Students who felt that they expanded more effort while taking the exam did not have better achievement. The possible explanation for this result is that students who paid more effort only during the exam may not have much effect on their achievement if they did not make effort during the semester. In fact, most students reported that they tried hard when working their final examination with a mean of 4.43. In addition, this questionnaire was given by the instructors, although they told students that they would not see their answers of this questionnaire, some students might be fearful to respond honestly if they did not try their best while taking the exam. Not making effort in the exam may induce great guilt, since effort is so valued by Asians as personal responsibility (Weiner, 1994). Students who did not make a good enough effort on this task during the semester might be more likely to respond that they had tried their best when taking the exam in order to expunge their sense of guilt by the end of semester.

Moreover, the results supported the hypothesis that the more the trait self-efficacy and effort students have during the semester, the more the situational self-efficacy and effort they have when taking exam. Indeed, when students possess high self-efficacy and invest more effort in learning the course during the semester, they should feel more confident and make more of an effort when taking the exam compared to those with low self-efficacy and effort in learning the course. In other word, the sense of self-efficacy and effort they hold continually throughout the semester do directly impact their sense of efficacy and effort investment when facing the exam.

In summary, the motivational beliefs, such as task value and trait self-efficacy, did strongly impact students' academic achievement through their impacts on effort. However, although state self-efficacy had significant effect on students invested effort when taking their final exam, state effort was not found to relate to achievement. According to the findings, this study suggested that educators and school teachers should deal with students' motivational beliefs in order to encourage them to invest effort and enhance their academic achievement.

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Appendix A
The English version of questionnaire (Trait Scales)

Major__________ Class____________
Seat Number______ Name__________

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	No idea	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. I am very interested in the content area of this course.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in this class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in this course.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I work as hard as possible in this course.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I keep working even though this course is difficult.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I like the subject matter of this course.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I understand what I learn in this course.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the reading for this course.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I tried to do my best to learn the knowledge and skills taught in this course.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I don't give up even if the task is hard.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I put forth my best effort in this course.	1	2	3	4	5
14. It is important for me to learn the course material.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other course.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in the course.	1	2	3	4	5
17.Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, confident I can do well.	1	2	3	4	5

Note: Task Value: 1,2,7,8,14,15; Trait Self-efficacy: 3,4,9,10,16,17; Trait Effort: 5,6,11,12,13.

Appendix B

The English version of questionnaire (State Scales)

Major__________ Class____________
Seat Number______ Name_________

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	No idea	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. I concentrated as hard as I could when taking the test.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I kept working, even on difficult test questions.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I worked hard on the exam.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I expect to do very well on this exam.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I had no doubts about my capability to do well on this exam.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Even when the questions were difficult, I knew I could succeed.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I tried to do my best on the test.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I did not give up, even though the exam was hard.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I tried to do my best, even though the test is very difficult for me.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am confident I did well on the exam.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am sure I did an excellent job on the questions on this exam.	1	2	3	4	5

Note: State Effort: 1,2,3,7,8,9
State Self-efficacy: 4, 5, 6, 10, 11

Education Reform and Teacher Training in China

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Introduction

China (PRC) is a rapidly-developing country with the largest population in the world. In recent years, there has existed a growing recognition of the need for a change in its educational system. Among the various causes for changes, the following stand out in particular: (1) the rapid economic reform in China; (2) the unprecedented revolution in science and technology; and (3) the unique characteristics of the Chinese society. The purpose of this paper is to explore the current education reform in China, focusing on the reform in basic education and its impact on teacher training. An example of teacher training in Beijing is discussed based on the information gathered from an recent interview with the Vice President of Beijing Institute of Education.

Background Information

At the present, China has a hierarchical, multi-track educational system that consists of four categories, i.e., basic education, secondary vocational-technical education, regular higher education, and adult education. Basic education, also known as the nine-year compulsory education, includes pre-school education, elementary education, and general secondary education, which is equivalent to junior high school education in the United States. In the academic year of 1994 - 1995, there were 952,110 regular schools of various types (excluding adult education) at different levels with a total enrollment of 226,217,100 students and 579,027 adult schools with a total enrollment of 66,815,800 students. Table 1 presents the number of regular schools in China in 1995. Table 2 is a summary of the enrollment in basic education in 1995.

Table 1: Number of Regular Schools in 1995

Graduate school	College/ University	Second-ary	Elemen-tary	Special	Kinder-garten	Total
740	1,054	99,814	668,685	1,379	189,438	952,110

Source: (State Education Commission of PRC, 1996)

Table 2: Enrollment in Basic Education in 1995 (in millions)

Junior High	Elementary	Special	Kindergarten	Total
53.71	131.95	0.3	27.11	213.07

Source: (State Education Commission of PRC, 1996)

In 1995, there were about 11 million teachers at all levels in China, among whom 9 million were elementary and secondary school teachers, 870,000 kindergarten teachers, and 292,000 special education teachers. According to the Department of Foreign Affairs of the State Education Commission of the P. R. C., China runs the biggest education system in the world (State Education Commission, 1996a).

The large population and the turbulent history present great challenges for education in China. Among the many obstacles facing the education system, the relatively low education level of the total population and large regional disparities appear to be the most imminent. The swift economic development in China, the rapid development in science and technology, coupled with the increasing international competition, have posed challenges to the existing education system in China. In order to meet the increasing challenges, the education reform, especially reform in basic education, is inevitable since the basic education is the foundation for improving the quality of a nation, especially a nation with the largest population in the world.

Reform in Basic Education

According to the State Education Commission of the PRC, the goal of the overall reform plan in education is to "make every effort to strengthen the basic education, take energetic steps to develop the vocational and adult education, and develop the higher education to an appropriate scope with focus on the improvement of teaching quality and efficiency" (State Education Commission, 1996b). This reform plan makes basic education and teacher training its highest priority because "the hope for invigorating the nation rests on education, and the hope for invigorating education rests on teachers" (State Education Commission, 1996b).

Specifically, the reform plan calls for a major focus-shift in basic education. Basic education in China has been test-driven for decades. According to the State Commission of Education (1996a), this tendency "is detrimental to the all-round development and healthy growth of youngsters". There needs to be a shift from test-driven education to an education that is designed to improve the quality of the well-beings of the people. It is hoped that by the year 2000, the 9-year compulsory basic education will be universalized across the country, and illiteracy rate among young people will be eliminated.

Three major steps have been taken to guarantee the accomplishment of the above objectives: (1) increase funding in education; (2) enhance teacher training; and (3) speed up law-making process. It is imperative that investment in education come from various channels, among whom the principal source of funding - the government - must be guaranteed. Currently, the "Project for Compulsory Education in Poverty-Stricken Areas" is being implemented in China. From 1995 to 2000, the government has allocated 3.9 billion yuan to this project. Together with the funding from other sources, there will be a total of 10 billion yuan (approximately $1.2 billion) allocated to this project by the year 2000.

Teacher Training

Various types of preservice and inservice education programs are available for teachers or teacher candidates in China. They include full-time, part-time, radio and TV courses, self-taught examination systems, short-term training classes, and subject matter training classes. Usually graduates from these programs receive a certificate or a degree, depending on individual circumstances. Generally speaking, a bachelor 's degree is required for teaching in a high school and a certificate at lower grades. The Teachers Law of China details the teacher certification system. According to the Teacher Law (1994), teachers in basic education should meet the following minimum qualifications:

- Kindergarten teachers: certificates from teacher training vocational schools specializing in child development or equivalent;
- Elementary teachers: certificates from junior colleges specializing in teacher training or equivalent; and
- Secondary teachers: bachelor's degrees from normal universities or equivalent.

However, there has always been a lack of qualified teachers. Many teachers fail to meet the minimum qualifications for various reasons. Thus, a major goal of the education reform is to provide professional development opportunities for teachers. Beijing has taken a lead in so doing. According to Vice President Shao (Personal Communication, July 25, 1996) of Beijing Institute of Education, teachers at various levels are required to go through professional development cycles in every five years. They are required to take general educational classes such as instructional methodology, current theory and practice in education, educational research, educational policy studies, computer education, and a foreign language, which is currently English. They also attend education seminars in their subject matters. Novice teachers are under good supervision.

According to Mr. Shao, a British model of curriculum and instruction is adopted by the Beijing Institute of Education in the professional development of its teachers. Technically, the focus of this model is developing lesson plans and unit plans using various instructional methodologies. Many of the classes are conducted in labs. Students are video-taped and critiqued by their peers and instructors. Proudly he said that by the end of 1995, 94% of elementary teachers, 85% of middle schools teachers, and 76% of high school teachers met the requirements.

While being asked about the results of such professional development, Mr. Shao indicated that follow-up surveys have been conducted. Teachers felt that they had received tremendous help, particularly in knowledge renewal and in improving their general ability. He also noted that the major problem was the time conflict between their job and training. There are only a few centralized training centers in Beijing.

The major challenge in teacher training is ironically caused by the rapid development of the economy. Money has become the focus of everything. As a result, the attrition rate becomes higher. According to Mr. Shao, the future devel̈opment of teacher training should focus on the professionalization of teachers.

Conclusion

While the quality of a nation depends on the quality of its citizens, the quality of its citizens depends on the quality of their education. However, the quality of education depends on the professional development of teachers. Thus, greater efforts are needed in strengthening the education reform in the areas of teacher education in China to profoundly impact the quality of education across the nation.

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Note: Information presented by Shao, B. X.., Vice President of Beijing Institute of Education, was obtained from an interview condcuted on July 25, 1996 in Beijing, China.

The Teacher Law (1994) was passed by The National Assembly of the People's Congress on October 31, 1992, and published in January, 1994.

加強職業教育與台灣就業市場之聯繫與合作

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職業教育以提供學生學習一技之長，於畢業後可憑此技術進入市場為教學目標。故職業教育課程設計、教學內容，以市場需求為導向，著重專業知識和技術傳授。但是目前國內職業教育卻以升學為主，而業界也認為職業內容與現實嚴重脫節，無法滿足需求。以升學為導向，實根於國人士大夫觀念，追求高學歷所至，其來有自。要想改進，非一蹴可成，需假以時日。

至於課程、教學與現實脫節，則起於課程調整時間過長，缺乏師資培育與進修管道，工商團體未參與職業教育等因素。本文將深入探討造成目前國內職業教育與實際需求脫節之原因，並針對問題提出因應之道。

職業教育與實際需求脫節原因

職業教育目標已模糊。職教目的在使學生擁有技術，於畢業後可立即進入就業市場。如今職教卻以升學為主，姑不論其成因為何，整體教學活動卻已深受影響。而這是目前國內職業教育最嚴重，也是最根本的問題。一旦職教目標模糊，其後一切規劃，都會動搖。造成升學為主的原因，實應深入研究。

課程未適時調整。國內職業教育課程內容每十年或更久才調整一次。然而應用科技發展一日千里，促使就業所需技術也日新月異。以現行課程內容調整速度，根本無法跟上時代需求。雖然依各科之特性，技術調整速度不一。農業機械改變較小，故課程調幅不大。但許多行業變動很大。例如，汽車內科技已大量電腦化，但以現行汽車修護課程內容，尚未將之納入。無論所需技術改變之幅度，課程每十年修定一次，間隔時間確實太久。這就造成學生所學無法配合實際需求。

課程設計與發展缺乏多方參與。現行職教課程設計係由教育部指定學校負責，委員以大學教授為主，職業學校教師、主管雖亦參與，但非常有限。私立職校參與的機會就更少，而目前國內職校學生則以私立學校占大多數。在課程設計過程中缺乏各方意見交流、溝通、整合的機制，最後結果大家也難以接受。一位受訪職校長指出，現行部分課程內容太深太難，份量也太多，未顧及學生吸收能力，這是缺乏溝通的結果。

課程設計委員會係臨時編組，委員本身對外界接觸不多，亦未曾有過相關工作經驗，故對實際需求缺少瞭解，所設計之課程也就與社會需求脫節。吾人實不應苛責委員，對其專業學術領域，亦無所質疑。此現象是制度上問題。課程十年才修定一次，臨時編組之委員會，以至於所制定內容實在難以跟上時代。

學校與業界缺少聯繫。職業學校應與業界緊密聯繫和互動，藉以資訊交流，但是目前學校與業界互動僅只於建教合作，缺少全面合作。學校需要業者提供資訊以調整教學。業界未積極參與，學校亦沒有主動向外蒐集資料，學校和用人單位之間缺少資訊流通管道，如此使職業教育和實際需求發生脫節。

國內工商團體未參與職教。國內工商團體、同業公會、工會、以及相關組織，對職業教育甚少關注。工商團體的確提供許多進修機會，並協助業者提高競爭力。但是對基本勞動力養成的職業教育，或其相關政策之制定、立法，卻未積極參與。在德國，工商團體、

同業公會和職業工會，均主動積極涉入與職業教育相關事務。例如，課程設計，評量標準，此乃我國不及之處。

沒有就業市場之加入、參與提供資訊，職業教育所設計之課程內容、教學目標、評量標準有如紙上談兵。我國工商業界以獲利為主，忽略了對教育應有的關懷。如此一味批評學校無法造就業者所需之勞動力，實不公平。

師資培育管道有限。目前國内職業教育師資來源可分為二，專科學校和技術學院教師，多係國内外大學畢業取得博士、碩士學位者。其師資之養成，仍以一般教育體系為主。如此所培育之師資，對職業教育既認知有限，又缺乏實務經驗，對以就業為導向之職教頗有影響。依據師資培育法，一般公、私立大學，可於報教育部核准後，培育中、小學校教師。然而一般大學内是否有足夠資源和師資以培養高職教師，以目前而言，甚有疑問。

高職師資源自師範體系，如師範大學、彰化師大、和高雄師大。其中彰化師大設有工業教育系和商業教育系。但每年提供師資人數有限，且未必能涵蓋職業教育中所有科別，因此一般大學畢業生仍是高職教師之來源。但不論老師來源為何，缺乏實務經驗卻是共通的問題。在整個職業教育師資培育過程之中，實務經驗之建立，未被重視。而法令對合格教師要求，又使教師來源受到侷限。如此，日後老師在校任教，自不容易與業界交流，脫節之現象也就於焉產生。

職業教育相關團體未加入。目前國内職業教育團體有：中華民國商業教育學會、中華民國工業教育學會、中華民國農業教育學會等。其會員多為高職各科教師、行政人員、校長、師範體系中各科之教授、以及對該課程有興趣之人士。這些組織成員幾乎包括該科所有相關人士，可是卻未發揮應有功能。其中職業教師屬第一線人員，最瞭解學生需要，也最清楚職教所面臨的困難和問題所在。這些資訊未經有組織、有系統的整理、發表，作為學術研究、政府決策，或教育立法之參考，殊屬可惜。職教團體本身未積極行動，行政部門對其建議也未給予正面回應。一位職教團體重要人士表示，教育部並不接受他們的建議。

職教團體本應可作為職業教育和業界之間的橋樑，發揮資訊蒐集、溝通功能，可惜沒有。缺乏資訊交流管道，學校和業界有如分離的兩個世界，其間產生落差，也就在所難免。

各種錯綜複雜的因素，造成職業教育學校課程與實際社會所需嚴重脫節。本文以下將針對問題，提出因應之道。

因應之道

解決職教與社會脫節問題，應由多方面著手進行，才可畢其功。以下就提出個人之見。

課程修定制度化。吾人應以建立課程修定制度為首要之事，在於縮短每次課程修定年限。課程不一定要年年修定，但要年年加以檢討。根據各方資訊，瞭解課程和實際需求的差距，作為修定時的參考和依據。硬性規定修定年限沒有必要也不切實際，視實際需要適時調整、修定。

應擴大參與者的管道。參與修定課程者應不僅限於教授、學者專家。實應邀請職校教師、職教團體、工商團體、工會、職訓單位、和政府相關人士之參與，甚至應包括職校畢業學生。擴大參與管道，才能集思廣義。經多方彙整，才不至使課程偏向，或超出學生負荷。

成立專責課程修定機構。現行臨時編組式委員會功能不足，應成立專責單位負責。分專職及專職人員，專職人員應負責資訊蒐集、彙整、分析、提出初步建議。此部分應以具

有職業教育專業背景人士為之，定期聚會討論。非專職者則以工商業界、同業公會、工會、及其他人士擔任。負責提供資訊。由成立固定單位以建立制度化溝通管道，進而從事課程修定。

多元化師資任用管道。目前專科學校和技術學院對教師學歷要求（博士），使得不少有多年工作經驗，卻無高學歷者無法任教。實應允許其以一定之工作年限、修習若干教育課程，經一定審核程序後，取得任教資格。擁有證照者，可比照辦理。如此可暢通師資多元化管道，同時增進教學和實務二者交流，以彌補落差。

其次技術學院應成立，或和師大、師院合作開設教育學程。由職業教育體系來培養師資。技術學院學生，通常已具有工作經驗，成為老師可增進學校課程與實務交流。

強化職教團體的功能。針對職教團體功能不彰問題，首先應解除設立地方分會，及同性質團體僅准設立一個之限制。准與地方分會成立，成為職校教師經常性聚會之所在。辦理學術研討會，意見交流。先在地方基層對問題有所瞭解，形成共識，提出確實可行之意見。屬區域性者，向地方政府反應。為全國性者經總會向教育部，立法院提出。

分會舉辦之活動應多邀請地方企業參與，互相溝通、瞭解，資訊交流，建立學校與產業界良性互動關係。有深穩的基礎，職業教育才能向上發展。總會也應和工商團體、學術單位加強合作，對職業教育的課程內容，教學活動，提出建議。以學校單獨力量，要做到和產業界全面交換資訊，實在不太可能，且效果有限，職業教育團體應扮演更積極的角色。

加強工商團體對職業教育的參與。業界實乃用人單位，工商團體亦應負起消除職業學校教學與實際需求脫節之責任。工商團體應向業者蒐集資料、分析、彙整後提供給教育單位參考。而且應更進一步提供職校教師在職進修機會，或協助其辦理。工商團體更應積極參與職業教育課程設計，職業分類與分級，制訂評量標準，最低畢業要求。

職業教育課程不符合實際需求，學校和業者雙方都應負起責任。而政府有責任建立良好環境，幫助學校和業者溝通。在制訂職業教育政策時候，應加強向基層學校和業界的諮商，而不應僅向學者專家諮詢，要重視基層單位的建議。

制訂職業教育法。以上所提方法，必須與以制度化、公開化，因此職業教育立法，實有其必要性。法案中應明確界定職業教育目標，清楚劃分政府與學校的權責，規劃職教團體、工商團體之參與等。立法亦有助於政策之穩定。

結語

職業教育與社會脫節，主要原因如前所述，亦針對問題提出建議。但七年之疾，非三年之艾可癒。脫節現象存在已久，非一夜之間可改變，需假以時日才行。解決問題的方法或因時空轉換而有所調整，但是必須立即起而行，否則問題也就無從解決。

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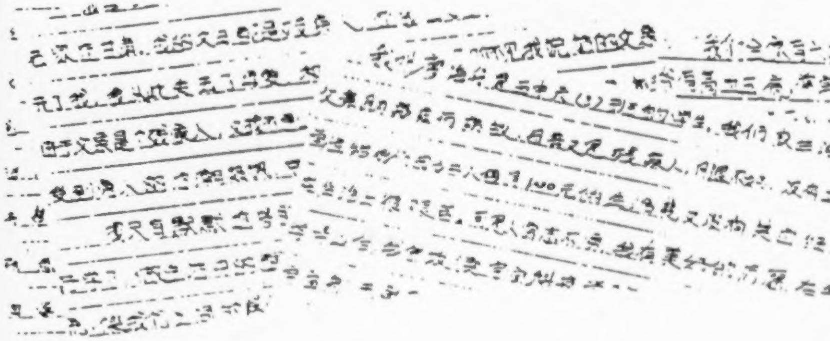

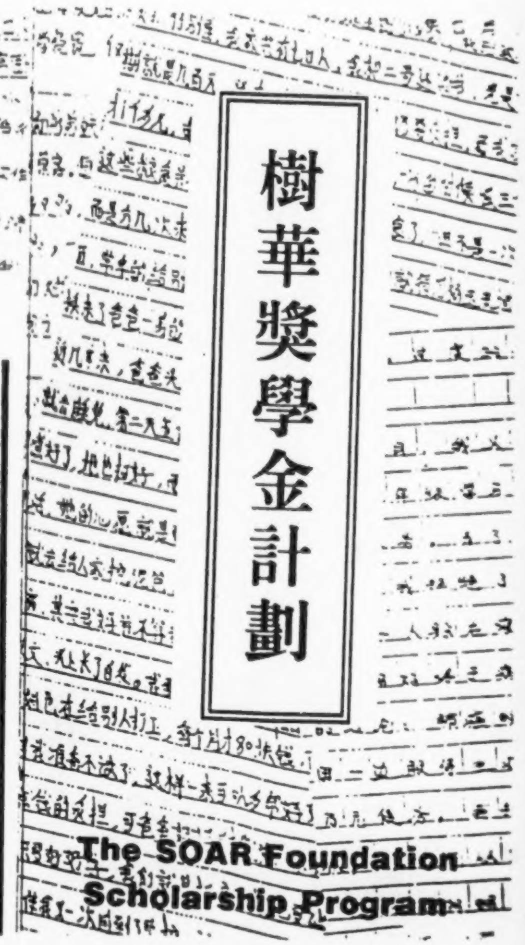
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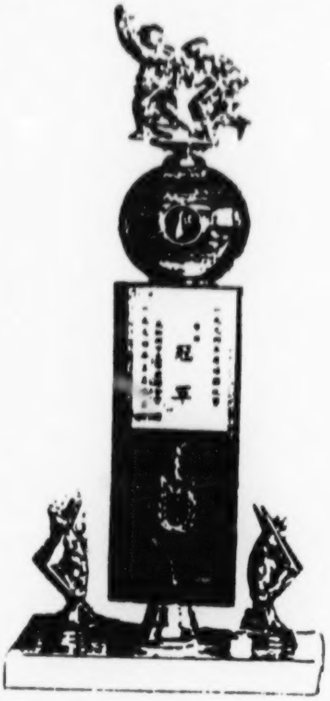

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第五屆世界華語文教學研討會

研討主題	
語文分析組	教學應用組
1. 華語語音、文字、詞彙、語法、語意及語用之研究。	1. 華語文教材、教學法、課程設計及師資培訓之探討研究。
2. 華語與外國語之對比分析。	2. 多媒體、電腦科技在華語教學上之應用與研究。
3. 兩岸語文之比較研究。	3. 華語文能力評量之研究與編製。
4. 其他相關議題研究。	4. 文化與語文教學之互動。

會　期：1997年12月27日至12月31日　　報名日期：即日起至1996年12月30日止

主辦單位：世界華文教育協進會

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Conference Theme

Chinese families usually over-emphasize academic learning, and some may overlook their children's social growth during their formal schooling. Field-based observations and research have shown that educators and related school personnel often have neither effective intervention strategies nor service programs appropriate for Chinese students who face challenges in academic and social growth. Our students need support when they experience difficulties in school or in developing positive bi-cultural identities and self-concepts. With the increasing number of immigrant Chinese and Chinese American students enrolled in schools, parents and school personnel will need to strengthen their network in order to adequately address the various needs of these individuals. We hope that the dialogues, centered around this particular theme, generated from this national conference will lead to research-based services to achieve a balanced development of academic achievement and social growth of Chinese and Chinese-American students.

張稚美教授 (Ji-Mei Chang, Ph. D.)
Conference Chairperson

Conference Logo

The bell shape of the logo symbolizes the profound enlightening effect of education on the next generations, just like the morning bell's wakening effect in a mountain monastery. The balanced two halves of the bell signify the dual emphasis of this association: Educational research and informed practices. It also reflects the conference theme of balancing academic achievement and social growth.

鐘鼎山林，暮鼓晨鐘。教育之影響深遠，一如晨鐘醒覺之效，以鐘爲題，明確教育之主旨，其均分兩扇之半鐘形體，以落實教育研究及策劃協會之宗旨，半鐘形體均衡比例在於彰顯年會主題：華裔學生的學業成就和社會成長的均衡發展。

朱倩儀 (Christian Chu), Designer